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ABSTRACT

This volume of an annual collection of essays relating to instruction in the basic communication course is presented in five sections: (1) Six Approaches to the Introductory Course: A Forum; (2) 1990 Basic Course Committee Award Winning Papers; (3) Instruction in the Introductory Communication Course; (4) Research on the Introductory Communication Course; and (5) Seminar on the Issues in the Introductory Course in Speech Communication. Papers in the collection include: "The Introductory Communication Course: The Public Speaking Approach" (Rudolph F. Verderber); "The Introductory Communication Course: The Hybrid Approach" (Judy C. Pearson and Richard West); "Small Group Communication as an Introductory Course" (John L. Brilhart); "Introductory Communication Theory: Not Another Skills Course" (William C. Donaghy); "The Interpersonal Communication Course" (Joseph A. DeVito); "The Business and Professional Speaking Course" (Lawrence W. Hugenberg and others); "The Introductory Communication Course: Results of a National Survey" (Douglas M. Trank and Pat Lewis); "Logic and Emotion, Persuasion and Argumentation: 'Good Reasons' as an Educational Synthesis" (Warren Sandmann); "Instructional Communication Strategies for Adapting to a Multicultural Introductory Course" (Charles A. Braithwaite and Dawn O. Braithwaite); "The R3A3 Processing System for Experiential Learning in the Classroom" (Pamela L. Gray); "Reading Our Own Speech Critiques as Texts that Reveal Educational Goals, Instructional Roles, and Communicative Functions" (Jo Sprague); "Classroom Interventions for Reducing Public Speaking Anxiety" (Michael R. Neer and W. Faye Kirchner); "Measurement of Communication Motivation in Public Speaking: An Exploratory Study and Scale Development Based on Expectancy Theory" (Edwin J. Dawson and Donald D. Yoder); "Models for Graduate Teaching Assistant (GTA) Training: The 'Real,' the 'Necessary,' and the 'Ideal'" (Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss and Pamela L. Gray); and "Summary of the Issues Discussed during the Seminar on the Introductory Course in Speech Communication" (Lawrence W. Hugenberg and Donald D. Yoder). (SR)

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Basic Communication Course Annual

Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Editor

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Volume III
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BASIC COMMUNICATION COURSE ANNUAL

Volume 3
June, 1991

EDITOR
Lawrence W. Hugenberg

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Editor's Page

This volume is the result of a lot of hard work by the authors and the editorial board. When we changed the submission date to get *The Annual* to press earlier in the year, it meant we had to have submissions sooner than expected, reviews turned around quickly and revisions made as soon as possible. Everyone cooperated in getting this edition of *The Annual* out following the publisher's deadlines. I will be forever grateful for everyone's hard work, patience and understanding through this process.

Leslie Genay, the Associate Editor for American Press, has been extremely cooperative in her work with me. She took over responsibility for *The Annual* last year and has offered excellent suggestions regarding publication and marketing. She is committed to the success of *The Annual* and has worked with me and others in our discipline to make *The Annual* a success. It should also be noted that American Press has adopted these volumes when other publishers would not. Because of their belief in our work in the introductory communication course, we now have these volumes and will continue to have *The Annual* as a publication outlet in the future.

Finally, Ray Ross raised an interesting question to me (and others involved in the "basic" course). He asked, "Why do we call these courses 'basic'?" His contention was that the term "basic" implies something to others on our campuses that, perhaps those of us involved in these courses around the country, don't want to imply. He suggested that we take a look at another name — perhaps "introductory" or "fundamental." As you will note throughout this volume of *The Annual,* I have made a conscious effort to change the orientation to "introductory course in communication" instead of "the basic course." I am anxious to see how others feel about this. Let me know what you think.

Enjoy reading this volume. We have had fun putting it all together; you should have fun reading it.

Larry Hugenberg, *Editor*
Youngstown, Ohio
May, 1991

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1990 Basic Course Committee Award Winning Papers

"The Introductory Communication Course: Results of A National Survey 106
Douglas M. Trank
Pat Lewis

The Association for Communication Administration sponsored a national survey of speech communication departments in 1985 to assess the state of the field in the mid-eighties. This survey was revised and administered again in 1987-1988 to assess changes which occurred across the country in the three intervening years. This paper reports selected data from that survey which might be valuable to faculty and administrators with a particular interest in introductory communication courses.

"Logic and Emotion, Persuasion and Argumentation: 'Good Reasons' as an Educational Synthesis" 123
Warren Sandmann

This essay considers the historical development and present-day pedagogical presentation of the disciplines of argumentation and persuasion as they are presented in the introductory communication course. The essay develops the claim that the two disciplines were historically bound but have been separated by a misinterpretation of classical rhetoric texts. Argumentation has been misrepresented as logical reasoning, and persuasion as appeals to emotion. This essay calls for the acknowledgment of the interdependence of logic and emotion, and for the teaching of rhetorical argumentation, an argumentation pedagogy that blends logical and quasilogical argumentative forms with the values and beliefs that are part of the persuasive process.

Instruction in the Introductory Communication Course

"Instructional Communication Strategies for Adapting to a Multicultural Introductory Course" 145
Charles A. Braithwaite
Dawn O. Braithwaite

Because of the increase in the cultural diversity of the students in our introductory classrooms, one question facing those of us who are responsible for teaching communication courses is: What changes, if any, are needed in the instructional strategies for teaching in a multicultural introductory communication course? Based on our investigations, this essay presents several instructional communication strategies we argue may be used to adapt communication courses to an increasingly diverse student population. This essay presents strategies in four general areas of teaching in our introductory communication courses: [a] broadly defining culture, [b] adapting instructional language, [c] adapting assignments, and [d] using ethnographic resources. Finally, we discuss issues of evaluation of teaching effectiveness in the multicultural classroom.

"The R3A3 Processing System for Experiential Learning in the Classroom" 161
Pamela L. Gray

This paper describes two systems currently used to process experiential activities in a communication classroom: Bloom's Taxonomy and the EDIT System. The author presents some possible drawbacks to using these systems, especially by new instructors and/or graduate teaching assistants. Finally, this paper proposes a new system, the R3A3, as a way to process activities effectively in an introductory communication classroom.

"Reading Our Own Speech Critiques as Texts that Reveal Educational Goals, Instructional Roles and Communicative Functions **179**
Jo Sprague

This essay argues that the inability to agree on the most valuable techniques of presenting classroom criticism to students is due to an inadequate consideration of educational purpose. One framework for thinking about goals and priorities is offered. Classroom critiques, which have previously been studied in terms of their manifest content, can be interrogated to identify assumptions about how teachers see the purposes of instruction, how they see their own roles in giving criticism, and the illocutionary force of their own comments as speech acts.

"Classroom Interventions for Reducing Public Speaking Anxiety" 202
Michael R. Neer
W. Faye Kirchner

The study examined the effects of controlling situational factors (i.e., instructional interventions) on reducing state anxiety levels of low and high public speaking apprehensives. Situational factors tested were task difficulty, ambiguity reduction, acquaintance level, evaluation potential, familiarity, and stimulus duration. These factors were tested by manipulating the instructional format through which the initial pubic speaking assignment was structured. Results demonstrated support for several of the factors. The study concludes by suggesting that a new set of learning outcomes through which to assess the long-term effects of anxiety reduction be identified.

Research on the Introductory Communication Course

"Measurement of Communication Motivation in Public Speaking: An Exploratory Study and Scale Development Based on Expectancy Theory" 224
Edwin J. Dawson
Donald D. Yoder

The primary intent of this study was to investigate the feasibility of creating a valid instrument, based on expectancy theories, that would reliably measure a student's motivation to communication in public speaking. This investigation suggests that motivation (as measured by the CMPS) is a multi-dimensional construct which can measure the expectancy potential of motivation in pubic speaking. Communication apprehension, as measured by the PRCA, was related to the avoidance dimensions of the CMPS. Willingness to communicate, as measured by the WTC, correlated with the approach dimensions of the CMPS. The CMPS seems to measure both approach and avoidance dimensions that are conceptually different than the PRCA and the WTC alone. Observed correlations between the CMPS and the ICM suggests that motivation in public speaking may differ from motivation in other contexts and that the needs assessment of motivation may produce different results than an assessment based on expectancy theory. Expectancy theory seemed to be a useful approach for the identification and measurement of communication motivation.

"Models for Graduate Teaching Assistant (GTA) Training: The 'Real,' the 'Necessary,' and the 'Ideal'" 247
Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss
Pamela L. Gray

Interest in GTA training is escalating, as evidenced by a steady increase in the number of papers, panels, and other programs devoted to this topic at speech communication conferences. This paper synthesizes the results of four national surveys on GTA training to create three training models: [1] the "real" model (what the survey results tell us is the current state-of-the-art of GTA training), [2] the "necessary" model (what the people involved in training and teaching say is needed), and [3] the "ideal" model (our translation of the research into practice).

Seminar on Issues in the Introductory Course in Speech Communication

"Summary of the Issues Discussed During the Seminar on the Introductory Course in Speech Communication" 269
Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Donald D. Yoder

During the 1990 SCA Convention in Chicago, scholars interested in the introductory course in speech communication met for a day-long discussion on current issues. Issues like competency, cultural diversity, and technologies in the introductory course were discussed. The paper herein summarizes the multiple perspectives brought to the seminar.

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A Forum: Six Approaches to the Introductory Communication Course

During the 1990 Speech Communication Association Convention in Chicago, the Basic Course Committee sponsored a program to discuss five popular approaches to the introductory communication course. These included the public speaking course, the hybrid or blend course, the interpersonal communication course, the introductory communication theory course and the business and professional speaking course. During the exchanges between the presenters and the 80 audience members, it was noted the group communication course was conspicuously absent but was added for this volume.

The panel marked the 20th anniversary of a similar panel which was part of the International Communication Association convention in May 1970. In his opening remarks for that ICA panel, Lawrence Rosenfield stated, "Papers on the basic course are an ancient custom in the speech profession, but there is reason to suspect that a professional discussion on this topic is more urgent now than it may have been a decade ago. We are all aware of the ferment characterizing contemporary American higher education; and we are further aware that, whether due to our own past sins or to the vagaries of the academic community, the speech discipline seems today to be peculiarly vulnerable to have its viscera probed, and it will either emerge from under the knife in a much healthier condition or it may not emerge at all." This introduction is also a fitting opening for these descriptions — 20 years later.

C. David Hurt, who also participated on the ICA panel stated: "It [the panel or the courses presented] does not pretend to be exhaustive, nor for that matter can the course described here even be called typical. They do, however, suggest some ways in which basic courses are changing."

The idea for the recent panel grew from the same concerns indicated 20 years ago. The same reservations expressed by Hurt are also our reservations. With this in mind, lets take you an a journey through six introductory communication courses: [1] interpersonal communication, [2] communication theory, [3] public speaking, [4] hybrid or blend communication, [5] small group communication, [6] business and professional speaking.

The presenters for this forum are:

Hybrid or Blend Course: Judy C. Pearson and Richard West, *Ohio University*

Small Group Communication: Jack Brilhart, *University of Nebraska - Omaha*

Interpersonal Communication: Joseph DeVito, *Hunter College*

Communication Theory: William Donaghy, *University of Wyoming*

Public Speaking: Rudolph Verderber, *University of Cincinnati*

Business and Professional Speaking: Lawrence W. Hugenberg, Alfred W. Owens, II and David J. Robinson, *Youngstown State University.*

The Introductory Communication Course: The Public Speaking Approach

Rudolph F. Verderber

Although a communication department has several choices for the focus of its introductory course, the public speaking approach continues to be the most prevalent largely because of its perceived value. People need public speaking skills because of their importance in achieving success in so many walks of life. In fact, in such professions as teaching, politics, law, sales, marketing, and the like, public speaking skills are fundamental to the job description. In addition, public speaking skills are useful to people in their daily impromptu speaking efforts as well. For instance, effectiveness in giving directions to a place, in giving instructions on how to use machinery, in analyzing and evaluating works of art, or in presenting views on current issues, are all increased by application of basic speech-making skills.

In this paper I want to clarify elements that distinguish a public speaking approach to the introductory course by looking at objectives of the course, course structure, teaching methods, problems in the course, and concluding with a prediction for the future.

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

A public speaking course is one in which students learn to prepare and to present effective informative and persuasive speeches. To accomplish these objectives students learn to select topics, write speech goals, analyze audiences and occasions, discover and create supporting material, state and organize main points, create introductions and conclusions, and develop a personal, effective speaking style that includes effective use of language and delivery.

The course may be conducted in individual sections or via a lecture-lab method. In either case, the emphasis of the course, often from one-half to two-thirds of the class meetings, involves speech making and speech criticism.

During a typical public speaking course, students gain experience in giving both informative and persuasive extemporaneous speeches, speeches that are well prepared and practiced, but that are neither memorized nor read. A one-quarter course (ten weeks of classes at three hours per week plus a final examination period) is likely to include a narrative or personal experience ice breaker, two informative and two persuasive speeches; a one-semester courses (fifteen weeks of classes at three hours per week plus final examination) is likely to include an ice-breaker, three informative and three persuasive speeches. Assigned speeches are likely to become longer and more complex as the term progresses.

COURSE STRUCTURE

Effective course planning is reflected in a well-written syllabus that includes course data (name of the instructor, office hours, title of the book, etc.), a course schedule, and ground rules for the course. Syllabi are usually given to students on the first day of the course.

Putting course information in writing is especially important, for the written syllabus establishes a kind of contract between the instructor and the student. The syllabus outlines student responsibilities while at the same time describing limits to instructor procedure. If you indicate on the syllabus that speech outlines are required for each speech, but are not graded, students know that they must submit outlines, but their evaluation for the course will be based on some other kinds of assignments. But, if during the course, you announce that outlines are so bad that you are going to begin grading them, students will have every right to contest the validity of that policy. Of the grievances that are filed by students against teachers, a great majority have to do with policies that were not in writing.

Instructors usually discuss the syllabus on the first day of the course. Students should understand the rationale for speech assignments, attendance requirements, and evaluation.

Speech Assignments

Since a public speaking course is built largely on the preparation, presentation, and criticism of speeches, the bulk of the assignments are speech assignments.

Types of speeches. Although a typical course often opens with a narrative or personal experience speech assignment that gets students on their feet early in the quarter, emphasis is likely to be on informative and persuasive speeches. In informative speeches, students learn to present information that gets audience attention, facilitates understanding, and increases retention; in persuasive speeches students learn to build their credibility, support propositions with good reasons and evidence, and adapt their material to the needs of individual audiences. Two of the most common informative speech assignments are the explanation of a process and a report that requires student research; two of the most common persuasive speaking assignments are the speech in support of an idea and a speech designed to move an audience to action.

Time limits for speeches. The number and the length of speeches will depend upon the size of the class and the attitude of the instructor. Yet it is generally conceded that classroom speeches should be relatively short so that everyone in class can have several speaking experiences. Thus, time limits of three or four minutes for a beginning speech, building up to eight or ten minutes for the final speech are likely to be seen as appropriate. The lengthening of limits reflects the increased complexity of the speeches. Delivery, organization, and audience adaptation can be shown in short speeches; it takes longer to show depth of analysis, quality of content, idea development, and creativity.

The time limits for a speech are often expressed in flexible rather than absolute terms. Thus, the time limit for the first speech might be two to four minutes whereas the time limit for the final speech might be six to ten minutes. By giving a student a time range, you help the student develop a sense of time without encouraging memorization. It is also useful to enforce a maximum time. If time limits are not enforced, a two- to three-minute speech assignment soon becomes a three- to five- or a five- to seven-minute speech. As a result, speakers are sometimes deprived of the opportunity to speak because previous speeches ran overtime. When lack of time prohibits students from giving their speeches on assigned days, or cuts deeply into time needed for effective criticism, class morale deteriorates. When students learn that time limits will be taken seriously, they work to stay within them.

Speech outlines. A basic assumption of most public speaking courses is that written outlines contribute to good speech preparation. Most instructors favor a complete sentence outline that includes a list of sources. An outline is not a speech, nor is it meant to be. But the written outline can often be used as a diagnostic device to tell the instructor why the speech was good or bad. When a speech is poor, the outline will often reveal whether the poor quality was a result of faulty preparation or problems in presentation; likewise, when a speech is good, the outline will reveal whether the good quality was by design or by accident.

Attendance

Since students will learn from listening to and criticizing speeches as well as from giving speeches, instructors often require attendance. A typical syllabus statement might say, "Speeches missed, regardless of cause, must be made up when time permits in order for the student to receive a passing grade for the course. Amount of reduced credit for a make-up speech, if any, will depend upon the nature of the absence and is entirely at the discretion of the instructor." If students see that they will have to be ready to give a speech at any time and perhaps have to wait a week or two before a time presents itself, they will be less likely to miss a speech.

Evaluation

One of the least pleasurable, but most important instructor responsibilities is evaluation. Grading speeches is difficult because instructors want to help students identify strengths and weaknesses without discouraging them. Beginning instructors often make the mistake of trying to grade each speech on all the criteria for good speech making and try to use the grade to show improvement. Grading is easier and more meaningful when the instructor determines the criteria for evaluation of each speech and then grades the speech in terms of those criteria. If, for a speech on explaining a process, the criteria include quality of organization and use of visual aids to facilitate understanding of the process, speeches that are well organized and that use visual aids effectively will receive a good grade even when those speeches have weaknesses in other categories. Likewise a speech that was well delivered, perhaps greatly improved over a previous speech, but was poorly organized and was ineffective in use of visual aids would receive a poor grade. When students are sure of the primary criteria for evaluation, then they can focus their practice on meeting those criteria. As the term progresses, each succeeding speech will be graded in part on the criteria that have been discussed in previous rounds; nevertheless, the key criteria should be those established for that round.

A second mistake is to give students so much of the benefit of the doubt that speech grades end up being higher than what the speeches were worth. A good method of checking validity of evaluations is to give a tentative grade to each student on the day of the speech and a firm grade at the end of the round. Instructors find that by looking at a group of speeches they find it easier to determine relative value.

The course evaluation combines grades for speeches and written work. Since the emphasis of the course is on speeches, speech grades should count more than test grades; but since students are also responsible for learning speech theory, test grades must be given enough weight to make a difference. Although there is no one best ratio of speech grades to written work, I favor counting speeches two-thirds and written work one-third of the final grade.

TEACHING METHODS

The primary teaching methods in a public speaking course include lecture, discussion, in-class exercises and speech criticism.

Class Lectures

Since most class time is devoted to student speeches and criticism, lecturing is likely to be kept to a minimum. Rather than preparing full class period lectures, instructors often have a series of mini-lectures that are used to cover essential information in short time blocks. Lectures can be particularly valuable to students when the instructor models the skills of good organization, stimulating idea development, clear and vivid language, and enthusiastic delivery, that students will be trying to develop. In a public speaking course, lectures may be used to serve at least four functions, to explain speech assignments, to clarify difficult concepts, to emphasize key points, and to dramatize abstract concepts of the textbook.

Explaining speech assignments. At least one week prior to the beginning of each round of speeches, instructors are likely to give short lectures that explain the speech assignments and clarify the key criteria for evaluating that assignment.

Clarifying difficult textbook concepts. In reading any textbook, students will find some concepts more difficult to understand than others. An instructor can anticipate which concepts are likely to be misunderstood and give a short lecture explaining these difficult concepts. For instance, since students often have trouble understanding Toulmin's analysis of argument, especially the concept of "warrant," an instructor may well give a lecture to explain the key concepts of reasoning.

Emphasizing key ideas. Since students often see every item of a chapter as of equal value, instructors can help students by giving short lectures that prioritize concepts of a chapter. For instance, in the text chapter on organizing speeches, an instructor may emphasize the importance of wording main points. Although the chapter contains many topics, wording main points is certainly one of the most important.

Dramatizing abstract concepts. Finally, instructors can lecture to dramatize abstract concepts. For instance, in a chapter on speech content, students may not have a vivid picture of forms of idea development. Since these are so important to effective speech making, an instructor may give a mini-lecture dramatizing use of examples, illustrations, and comparisons.

Class Discussion

Class discussions are used so that students may show their understanding of chapter information. The value of class discussions is likely to be increased when the instructor plans a series of questions that cover the key points of a chapter.

Instructors often try to create an atmosphere that encourages free discussion. When a class is small enough, chairs can be placed in a circle so that everyone can see each other and students can be encouraged to talk without raising their hands. Instructors can reinforce student comments by saying, "Good point:" they can probe for more information by saying such things as "Can you give me an example?" or "Can you show me how that might work?" and they can get closure on points by summarize responses.

In-Class Exercises

To help reinforce basic principles, instructors supplement lecture and discussion with in-class exercises. Most teacher's manuals that accompany texts include several exercises to choose from and many textbooks include exercises. The primary goal of an exercise is to help students apply what they have learned. For instance, during a class period discussing outlining, I like to use the "mixed-up outline" exercise to familiarize students with standard speech outlining form and content. In this exercise, the instructor finds or creates a well-written outline; types it without indentations and without Roman numerals, numbers, and letter designations; then cuts each outline apart so that each item is a separate entity. Each member of the class receives one complete cut-up outline. The goal of the exercise is for students to reorganize the outline into its original form, complete with Roman numerals and letters. By mixing lecture, discussion, and exercises, instructors can both increase student understanding and student involvement.

Speech Criticism

Students are likely to learn the most about speech making in general and about their individual needs in particular during oral and written criticism.

Oral criticism. A major feature of the public speaking approach to the introductory course is the large amount of time spent on oral criticism of speeches. Instructors concerns include when to criticize and how to criticize.

Oral criticism may be given at the end of each speech or at the end of the day's speeches. Although criticizing speeches in turn brings out points when they are freshest and most meaningful to the student, when giving immediate criticism, the tendency is to spend a disproportionate amount of time on individual speeches. Moreover, immediate criticism tends to focus on details, and negative comments tend to dominate.

Many instructors prefer giving criticism at the end of the group of speeches. Although some of the immediacy may be lost, grouping speeches allows the instructor to compare and contrast various procedures and to budget the time better. One way of maximizing time is to assign fewer speeches the first day or two so that more time is available for criticism. During the last day or two in a round, more speeches are assigned and less time is allocated to oral criticism. The rationale for this procedure is to take more time for criticism when it is most needed, at the start of a round, when both the speakers themselves and those who will be speaking later can profit, and to take less time when the majority of the class has already given the speech.

How to criticize speeches is especially important. Effective criticism focuses on speaker strengths, speaker weaknesses, and means of correcting mistakes. The challenging part of criticism is to discuss speaker weaknesses without destroying student morale. One of the advantages of grouping criticism is that the critic can point out good and bad practices without making any of the criticism too personal. For instance, by saying, "In today's speeches we heard and saw good examples of delivery and organization and examples of methods that needed to be improved. Those whose delivery was especially good looked at their audience. . . ." Using this method, the critic avoids calling attention to a particular speaker.

If you choose to say something about each speech, an effective method is first to point out one or two things that were good about the speech. Even the poorest of speeches should have some characteristic that can be praised ("Joe used a good example to illustrate his first point"). Then the critic mentions one or two things that were bad. Even if the speech had a dozen weaknesses, the critic should not attempt to focus on more than three. The critic wants to help the students and not overwhelm them with the sense of failure. Moreover, most students are not going to be able to correct more than one or two mistakes by the time of their next speech.

Critics also tell the students which improvement would be most desirable in the next speech. For instance: "Marge, regardless of what else you do in your next speech, I want you to concentrate on making the main points so clear that everyone in class will know when you are stating a main point and will be able to recall the main points specifically."

Oral criticism is especially valuable when it focuses on key criteria for evaluation of that particular speech. Although each speech is a composite of content, organization, style and delivery, it is not necessary to cover every aspect of each of these areas in every critique. When instructors key their oral criticism to three or four criteria for each assignment, students will see the critique as far more of an educational experience. They will know that, in each speech, they should be paying special attention to those criteria because how well they are able to meet key criteria will determine their grade.

Most instructors like to involve students in the criticism process. Not only does student criticism give the speakers different perspectives, but also practice in criticism helps students sharpen their critical skills. In order to meet these goals, however, it is usually a good idea to structure the procedure. Students can be directed to focus on answers to specific questions that are keyed to the major criteria for evaluation for that round.

For instance, in a first round of speeches in which you choose to focus on organization and delivery, you might instruct class members to focus their comments on introductions that were especially attention getting, on sets of main points that were easily remembered, on conclusions really emphasized the point of the speech, and on delivery that was particularly enthusiastic. Identification of three or four categories stimulates students to listen well enough to make specific comments about key aspects of the speeches.

Many instructors like to be responsible for all the criticizing during the first round. During the second and third rounds, they bring students into the process, and during the final rounds, they may put the criticism almost entirely in the hands of the students.

Written criticism. Regardless of when and how oral criticism is given, instructors are likely to write critiques for each speaker. Written critique methods range from the blank sheet, in which instructors write their comments as they listen, to the detailed check sheet, in which instructors check a list of items. Many instructors prefer a critique sheet that indicates certain categories of comments, but that encourages written comments rather than merely check marks.

Critique sheets differ in many respects for each assignment. Although criteria for evaluation of subsequent speeches would probably include criteria of all past speeches, the grade and focus of criticism would be based upon the special criteria for that round.

One way of involving students in written criticism is to group the class so that when group A is speaking, group B is writing critiques (using the same critique form as the instructor), and groups C and D are listening. This method ensures that every speaker gets several written critiques instead of just one. Then during the criticism period, students can be asked to lead the discussion of the speeches.

PROBLEMS IN THE COURSE

Some of the most significant problems of the introductory course concern standardization in multi-section courses, textbook selection, and use and training of part-time instructors and graduate students who teach such a high percentage of the course in large universities.

Many schools try to solve problems of standardization by having workshops for all new instructors at the beginning of the year. Some schools use a common syllabus for all sections. And most schools try to involve all the experienced faculty in textbook selection.

Despite some of these problems, the public speaking approach is likely to have fewer problems largely because of the long tradition of the public speaking course.

THE FUTURE

I end this paper with a prediction that the emphasis on public speaking is likely to continue if not increase in the future. During the early 1970's, many schools switched from a public speaking emphasis to an interpersonal emphasis. During the last 10 years many of those who made the switch have switched back to a public speaking approach. For the next 10 years, I believe that the public speaking approach and the hybrid approach will continue to be the most common approaches to the introductory course in most parts of the country.

The Introductory Communication Course: The Hybrid Approach

Judy C. Pearson
Richard West

The introductory communication course is one of the most important courses in a general education program at the college or university level. Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston (1985) observed that the course "remains a vital component of American higher education" (290). Seiler and McGukin (1989) agreed that the course is critical to a speech communication curriculum. Professors adopt a variety of approaches in teaching the introductory course.

The purpose of this essay is to examine one approach to the introductory course: the hybrid course. The authors will (1) describe the hybrid approach; (2) consider the course structure including general teaching strategies. behavioral objectives, classroom activities, major assignments, and examinations; (3) note the importance of the hybrid approach; and (4) recommend some future directions for the course.

THE NATURE OF THE HYBRID COURSE

The hybrid course is one that examines several communication contexts including. but not limited to, intrapersonal communication, interpersonal communication, small group communication, and public speaking. Subsumed within these contexts are such communication components as listening, critical thinking, perception and language. This approach includes interpersonal relationships among families and friends as well as leadership and interviewing. The approach examines a variety of purposes for public communication.

The hybrid course may vary from campus to campus. Some communication educators include mass communication, organizational communication, health communication, and other contexts and settings. Some minimize intrapersonal and interpersonal communication and emphasize public communication. Nonetheless, the large number of popular texts which creatively combine several communication contexts suggest that the hybrid course is fairly homogeneous (Adler & Rodman, 1991; DeVito, 1991; Hybels & Weaver, 1989; Pearson & Nelson, 1991; Verderber, 1989).

This introductory course choice generally moves from the more personal to the more public contexts of communication. Most courses begin with the nature of communication, perception, self-awareness and self-concept, active and empathic listening, critical thinking, nonverbal codes and verbal codes. After considering these components, relevant to all communication contexts, interpersonal communication becomes the focus. Interpersonal relationships, self-disclosure, and conflict are usually part of this unit. Common interpersonal relationships that are examined are those with acquaintances, friends and family members. The interview is included sometimes as a professional interpersonal setting. Small group communication, including a discussion of leadership follows next.

Finally, the hybrid approach includes a thorough discussion of public communication including topic selection, audience analysis, speaker credibility, finding information, organizing the speech, delivery and visual aids. The settings of public communication that are always included are the informative speech and the persuasive speech. A few communication educators also consider the entertainment or after-dinner speech.

THE HYBRID COURSE STRUCTURE

General Teaching Strategies

The hybrid course can be based on cognitive learning, the learning of skills, or a combination of these two approaches. Classroom activities, discussions, assignments, and tests are influenced directly by the overall approach to learning that the teacher selects.

The cognitive approach to learning involves the teaching of concepts, principles, and theoretical constructs. The learning required is the retention and retrieval of specific information and ideas, either through recognition or recall. The objectives of the cognitive approach are to produce familiarity with, awareness of, and comprehension of information. The underlying pedagogical philosophy is that generalized knowledge is transferable to behavior. The cognitive approach suggests that students who achieve a cognitive understanding of communication concepts can then communicate effectively.

In this approach, teachers rely on lectures and class discussion. They use activities or other experiential methods primarily to facilitate understanding and explanation. Students write assignments, examinations, or papers that require them to retrieve specific information to draw relationships among concepts or to analyze behavior. Students would not be expected to prepare and deliver a speech, for instance, if the cognitive approach to learning was the only preparation for that assignment.

The skills approach to learning focuses on behavior. This approach involves the practice, internalization, and adoption of effective communication behavior. Students learn how to encode and decode messages in order to understand and share ideas and feelings. The underlying philosophy of the skills approach is that an understanding of the theory, concepts, and principles of communication is necessary only to the extent to which it facilitates effective performance.

Students using the skills approach should be given an opportunity to practice the skill. The discussion of such activities should focus on the effectiveness of the communication, rather than on an understanding of the underlying concepts. Assessment is of the actual communication, not of the understanding of concepts and principles of communication.

Many teachers combine the cognitive and skills approaches. Within this integrated approach, students learn to comprehend the concepts and principles of communication and to use them effectively in actual practice. Teachers adopting this view believe that effective communication is derived from an understanding of theory and principles but is not inherent in that understanding. The underlying idea is that to communicate without knowledge of the causes and effects of communication results in inefficient, ineffectual learning. The study of the principles and concepts of communication reduces the trial and error involved in learning only by doing.

Most teachers believe that students who take an introductory communication course will become more proficient communicators. The "back to the basics" movement. which has found its way to the college and university level, embraces the idea that students should become more competent in communication. While this interest might seem to require an emphasis on the skills alone, the authors' philosophy is that both cognitive and behavioral learning are necessary.

In addition, the authors hold that the learning of communication concepts and skills is approached ideally in an incremental manner. Concepts and skills should build from one activity or assignment to the next. The activities used in the hybrid course should break the concepts and skills into component parts so that students can learn the components of the required skill before attempting to perform the composite behavior. Concepts should be divided into manageable units that students can master before being required to synthesize and integrate the concepts into more complex behavioral or cognitive entities.

Behavioral Objectives

Teaching is most effective when both the teacher and the student recognize the specific goals of instruction. Behavioral objectives are statements of the specific observable behaviors that indicate student proficiency. Behavioral objectives allow a student's performance to be measured against a specific standard of competence to ascertain whether the student has attained the goals established for the course. A statement of behavioral objectives should include five elements: who is to perform, the specific behavior expected, the level of competence required, when the performance is to occur, and a method for evaluating the proficiency of the performance.

In stating behavioral objectives, the teacher should separate the desired behavior into its component parts. The crucial part of a behavioral objective is that the goal be stated as an observable behavior. Learning can only be evaluated if an observable activity is required of students and, then, only if that activity can be evaluated in relation to a known standard of competence. Whether the goal is cognitive learning or the acquisition of a skill, the statement of objectives must entail a behavioral manifestation of learning. Such objectives are useful in designing activities, planning the sequence in which material is to be presented, creating assignments, writing test questions, and conducting class discussions. Each of these instructional practices should be derived directly from the behavioral objectives established for the course.

Classroom Activities

Activities are designed primarily to increase the experiential basis of student learning. The pedagogical underpinning of activity-based learning is the supposition that students learn more effectively through active participation. Activities can serve as a stimulus for discussion by engaging students in provocative situations. Activities may be seen to be integral to the learning of behavioral skills, as well as to increasing the comprehension of communication constructs.

Activities should not, however, be an end in themselves. They should be regarded as a teaching aid, not as a substitute for the sound instructional practices of listening to a lecture, participating in class discussion, and reading the textbook. Activities must be incorporated into the structure and goals of the course rather than used as isolated games or entertainment to fill class time. Three guidelines may be useful in the selecting of activities. First, activities should be derived directly from behavioral objectives. The key to the effective use of classroom activities is to regard them as directed activities. Second, activities should, if possible, require the active participation of all the students. Students may lose interest if they are not involved. Third, the activity should be discussed in a manner that the behavior and experience are related to the content of the course. An example of an activity follows.

First Impressions

Objectives: Students should be able to understand the importance of first impressions and witness how these impressions are formed. Students should also be able to identify what nonverbal factors and features played a role in determining their first impression of another person. Students will also be introduced to the process of perception and will be prepared to discuss the variables that affected their perceptions of others.

Procedure: This activity works best at the beginning of the term. Provide students with name tags on which they print their names. Students should attach the name tags to their body so it is visible to others. Distribute the First Impressions Questionnaire. Tell students that they are not to talk to another person during the entire activity. (A variation of this activity can include verbal communication. The activity can then be integrated at different points within the term.) Students should identify words or phrases that they think best represents another student. Thus, a student will look at another person, determine if they are a relevant choice, and place that person's name on the blank next to the words/phrase. This should continue until all blanks are filled. Encourage students to indicate a choice for all words/phrases. Remind students to use only nonverbal communication for this activity.

Class Discussion: Student discussion should focus on the difficulty of making a selection. Yet, our first impressions of others are often solely based upon this nonverbal effort. Students might also be encouraged to relate their feelings on how our perceptions are based upon what others are wearing, their facial features, body type, hair style, etc. At the conclusion of the discussion, students should reveal their choices to ascertain the accuracy or inaccuracy of their selections.

Applications: This activity is a good introduction to the course because it allows students to become informally introduced to each other. The activity also introduces students to the perception process and nonverbal communication. Information gained from this activity can later be presented in the course when discussing impression formation in interpersonal relationships.

First Impressions Questionnaire

Most political ____________________

Most conservative ____________________

Least likely to march in a protest ____________________

Most attractive ____________________

Tallest ____________________

Shortest ____________________

Loves to cook ____________________

Wants to be a celebrity ____________________

Visits the elderly ____________________

Has appeared on stage ____________________

Has read the Bible ____________________

Has a rich relative ____________________

Is a "morning" person ____________________

Has a "love" relationship ____________________

Is a 4.0 student ____________________

Hates to watch television ____________________

Major Assignments

Communication assignments should be prepared thoughtfully and with a consideration to their validity and reliability. Such assignments should meet, at a minimum, three standards. First, assignments should be consistent with the goals of the course, the instructor, and the student. The course goals dictate the course content and the students' assignments. In addition, the instructor's teaching style, personality, and expertise must be considered. The needs of the students are similarly important. Students should be given assignments that will be useful to them in their future careers and relationships.

Second, the assignment must distinguish between those students who are competent communicators and those who are not. A broad range of competencies should be tested by each assignment. Various levels of mastery of the course objectives should be differentiated. Specific criteria for measuring competence should be inherent in the assignment.

Third, the assignment should be fair to the students. Evaluations of the students should be based on criteria known to them and should measure only those skills that have been taught during the course. The criteria should be as objective as possible. Objective, observable criteria ensure that all students are evaluated on the same basis.

With these guidelines in mind, teachers can design major assignments. Some major assignments that are appropriate for the hybrid course are assigning a journal such as the Communication Analysis Journal or the Self-Awareness Journal described by Pearson and West (1991). Interpersonal assignments may include an assigned conversation or an interview. The small group discussion is often used within the hybrid course. Public speaking assignments may include informative or persuasive speeches delivered in impromptu, extemporaneous, memorized, or manuscript modes.

Examinations

Written examinations are a time-honored method to evaluate learning. The three major types of written examinations are the essay, multiple-choice, and true-false tests. The choice of the type of test depends on the time available for the construction and scoring of the test. the number of students in the course, and the kind of learning to be evaluated. Essay tests are both difficult and time-consuming to construct if a valid, reliable essay examination is the teacher's goal. Essay questions are appropriate when creativity or originality in explaining relationships among concepts is appropriate or when an analysis of a problem or situation is desired. The potential unreliability in the scoring of essay questions precludes their use except for testing application of information to complex problems. The essay test allows an examination of the students ability to freely recall information and to synthesize information in original ways. Three examples of essay questions for the hybrid course follow.

1. Construct a model of communication. Your model should include the basic elements of communication, the important variables that affect communication, and the relationships among the variables. Explain your model.
2. When studying a new subject, one of the student's first tasks is to master the vocabulary of the discipline. Relate this statement to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Explain the hypothesis in your answer and cite examples of it from your speech communication class.

3. If you wished to increase your perceived competence, an aspect of source credibility, what could you do to make the audience believe you to be an expert on the topic? Focus on strategies to use before, during, and after the speech.

Multiple-choice tests similarly take a great deal of time to construct if valid and reliable measurement is the goal. Unlike essay tests, they are easily and reliably scored. Multiple-choice tests require students to recognize, rather than to recall, the answers. When teachers wish to measure students' ability to learn the definitions and attributes of concepts and their relationships to each other, they use a multiple-choice test. This format is also appropriate when teachers: evaluate large numbers of students, use the tests repeatedly, and want uniform measurement of the learning of students in several sections of a course. Three examples of multiple-choice questions for the hybrid course follow.

1. Amputees reporting that they still experience "feeling" in the location of their missing limb is an example of:
   A. perceptual filtering
   B. perceptual objectivity
   C. perceptual recall
   D. perceptual constancy
2. The EEOC suggests that if an interview question is not within the legal guidelines:
   A. you should explain your reluctance to answer
   B. you should refuse to answer without any explanation
   C. you should report the offending employer immediately.
   D. you should leave the interview immediately.

3. The memorized mode of public speaking would be most appropriate in which of the following situations?
   A. A candidate for office gives the same speech several times a day during the campaign.
   B. You answer a question in class during a review for a test.
   C. You are giving a speech to your classmates on ways to improve study habits.
   D. The President is presenting a special report on the economy to Congress.

True-false tests are less useful than multiple-choice examinations. They can be of value in testing material about which an insufficient number of plausible alternatives exist for multiple-choice questions. These kinds of questions test recognition of definitions of concepts and the relationships among them, just as multiple-choice questions do. The primary weakness with true-false questions is that students have a 50 percent chance of guessing the correct answer. Three examples of true-false questions for the hybrid course follow.

1. The perceptual process by which we supply missing information is closure.
2. In ad hominem fallacy, argumentation is directed at the person rather than the issue.
3. One of the most common immediate behavioral purposes in an informative speech is to encourage audience members to state what they have learned.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE HYBRID APPROACH

Although some introductory course researchers have suggested that "we do not know what is the most effective approach to organizing and teaching the basic course" (Seiler & McGukin, 1989, 35), the hybrid orientation has endured as a mainstay in the academy (Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, 1990). As the academic pendulum swings between an emphasis on professional skills and on traditional liberal arts, the course loses and gains enrollment. Nonetheless, it has remained as one of the two most popular introductory courses in American colleges and universities over the last decade.

A public speaking emphasis characterizes many introductory communication courses (Gibson, et al., 1990), but research has not demonstrated the superiority of the public speaking approach as most effective or satisfying (Seiler & McGukin, 1989). Indeed, surveys have found that many people believe interpersonal skills are more important, or equally important, to public speaking skills. Lohr's survey (1974) of alumni found that they most frequently engaged in social conversation, making decisions, and giving information to one person. The most important activities included giving information and making decisions with another person, and providing information to a group.

A survey of college students and alumni found that, regardless of the nature of the introductory course experienced, both students and alumni believed the hybrid course to be most appropriate (Pearson, Sorenson, & Nelson, 1981). The researchers observed, "Surprisingly few subjects selected the public speaking course which most of them had experienced" (298).

In a related study, alumni were asked about those communication skills that were most important to their job success. Sorenson and Pearson (1981) found that interpersonal communication, not public speaking, was most important. Although the alumni surveyed did believe that public speaking skills formed part of their communication core, it was listed after an understanding of interpersonal communication, communication climate, leadership communication, message flow, small group communication, written communication, and interviewing,

Bendtschneider and Trank (1990) surveyed alumni, students and instructors. All three groups agreed that listening was among the top three most important communication skills. The students and instructors agreed that small group communication ranked in the top three while the students and the alumni agreed that interpersonal skills were in this top three category. The alumni, alone, rated handling questions and answers as a top three skill while the instructors placed organizing the speech in this category.

National leaders and introductory communication course researchers have recommended that we listen to former and current students. While serving as the President of the Speech Communication Association, Wallace Bacon (1977) observed, "Institutions are facing the task of teaching men and women to interact with others in the day-to-day world outside their walls" (10). Bendtschneider and Trank (1988) encouraged administrators and faculty "to be primarily concerned with the extent to which the basic course is fulfilling the communication needs of their students" (4).

Another rationale for the hybrid approach concerns enrollment in communication courses. Most college students enroll in only one communication course. Serving in the national office of the Speech Communication Association, Don M. Boileau (1985) remarked, "If 'the eyes are the mirror to the soul, then the *basic course* is the 'mirror' to the *discipline*. For many students the basic course is the only instruction in speech communication" (74). Since the introductory course serves as their sole exposure to the communication field, it is imperative that the course be as comprehensive as possible.

The luxury of studying a single context within an individual course should be reserved for upper division courses taken by communication majors who enroll in many communication courses.

Administrators from programs outside of the communication field are more likely to know about and require students in their academic units to take courses in our discipline that include public speaking than they are to take interpersonal communication courses. The hybrid course includes this communication context seen as vital to those in the ivory tower. At the same time, it averts student fears that often accompany enrolling in an exclusively public speaking course. Students are gentled into public speaking experiences after participating in intrapersonal activities, dyadic exchanges, informative interviews, personal conversations, and small group discussions. The hybrid course naturally follows an incremental approach which allows students to move developmentally from intrapersonal to interpersonal to public speaking contexts.

Finally. the hybrid course, unlike some other approaches. can be offered in the small, traditional, autonomous section, in personalized systems of instruction (PSI), and in large lecture courses. Public speaking, nearly always present as a skills course, cannot be taught in the same variety of delivery systems. As our academic dollar continues to shrink. more economic formats may become necessary.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS OF THE HYBRID COURSE

The future of the hybrid approach is bright. The course continues as a mainstay among the introductory courses. Further, an examination of popular textbooks written for this course demonstrates a sensitivity to cultural and societal changes. For example. of the top four textbooks cited by Gibson, Hanna, and Leichty (1990), only one is hybrid in nature. *Understanding and Sharing: An Introduction to Speech Communication* (Pearson & Nelson, 1991), originally published in 1979, has gone through five revisions and now includes chapters or major sections on gender, friendship. family communication, critical thinking, critical listening, active listening, empathic listening, interpersonal relationships, leadership, and visual aids. None of these topics were included in the first edition. Furthermore, the book exhibits a multicultural sensitivity, essential on the college campus in the last decade of this century. Gray (1989) acknowledged that the introductory course "is highly valuable to the students and to the speech communication profession and so it needs to be kept current with societal needs and expectations" (3). The hybrid course, as illustrated in the most popular text adopted in the course, has met that challenge.

Within the next decade, the hybrid course will probably reflect the business and professional skills desired by a heavily work-oriented student population. Beyond the decade, the course will probably continue to adapt to changing cultural, social, and economic conditions. The hybrid course has a diversified portfolio and is more likely to survive in uncertain times than are the individually invested courses we teach.

College and university curricula will probably be transformed by the year 2000. Telecommunication and computer industries have begun to demonstrate the possibilities of combining audio, video, and computer systems into interactive learning opportunities for students. Within our own discipline, textbook companies have become increasingly able to offer computerized text packs, video tapes, overhead transparencies, and other learning ancillaries. The introductory communication courses, including the hybrid course, will be markedly different because of the developments within communication systems industries.

SUMMARY

This paper described one approach to the introductory communication course. Specifically, the essay delineated the course structure, the importance of the course, and some future directions for the course. Over 25 years ago, Dedmon (1965) wrote, "Our traditional approaches have blinded us to the real objective of the required first course: To teach a general education course in oral communication" (125). The hybrid course answers Dedmon's call to action. It provides a viable educational opportunity.

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Small Group Communication as an Introductory Course

John K. (Jack) Brilhart

It took considerable temerity for me to write a paper about an introductory course in small group communication. Although I have taught basic small group courses throughout my career as a college teacher, I have never had the opportunity to teach where a small group course was an option among introductory communication courses from which most or all graduates were required to choose. So I projected from my experience in teaching and coordinating multiple-section hybrid, interpersonal and public-speaking courses. Mostly I have drawn on my experiences in teaching small group courses at the sophomore and upper-class levels, my experience in conducting noncredit workshops, and my research for writing small group communication textbooks.

I. THE INTRODUCTORY SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION COURSE

An introductory course in small group communication should be designed to serve students from all major fields of study, not just communication, sociology, psychology, education and/or business students. Futurists such as Naisbitt and Theobold have forecast that competencies as members of small groups will become increasingly important to Americans in the 21st century; human experience in recent years gives credibility to these forecasts. Today virtually everyone needs at least moderate competency in small group communicating.

An introductory service course should blend both theories about small groups and communication within and involving them, some applications of the theories to the world of work, and limited training in specific small group techniques. This course will not be about interpersonal communication *per se;* that is dealt with in interpersonal courses, and there is not enough time to deal with it in a small group course. Nor would it be a course in group dynamics, which is the study of the nature and functioning of groups in general rather than being focused on communication. And although I have been certified as a T-Group trainer for college students and have participated in and facilitated many "experiential" groups involving encounter, therapy, confrontation, gestalt methods, and more, I would not put these theories or methods into a basic small-group service course. For the most part, such group techniques deal with more general interpersonal relations than with small group communication as such, and call for highly specialized competencies on the part of the instructor.

The introductory small group communication course I propose would first focus on small task (secondary) groups as entities or organisms, from the perspective of general systems theory. Within that framework, a small group is just as real an entity as is a human being, a nation, a corporation, a solar system, or a universe. Students must be taught to perceive groups as entities (not mere collections) with observable input, throughput, and output characteristics, invariably embedded in larger social systems. Just as a bee has little meaning apart from a colony, so does a human apart from groups of humans.

Almost everyone needs to learn how to work in teams with people who are have drastically different backgrounds and training: engineers with psychologists, designers with scientists, chemists with food processors, public relations practitioners with physicians, ranchers with city dwellers, and so on. Diverse people need to learn how to communicate to achieve consensus on a course of action that will reflect their collective wisdom in decision making. Otherwise, we may experience more and more disastrous decisions like that which led to the launching of *Challenger* when the weather was too cold.

Such an introductory course will deal only to a limited extent with short-term groups which hold one or very few meetings; its focus should be on groups which have time to develop a culture of norms, roles and statuses, procedures, networks and other *group level* variables. In my judgment, only brief attention (if any) should be given to primary groups such as the family, to one-time conferences of representatives, to one-show panel groups, and none at all to such assemblages as symposia or colloquia. Whether or not I would devote much class time to learning groups would depend on the career objectives of students. More of my views on this matter can be found in my texts *Effective Group Discussion* and *Communicating in Groups.*

The instructor and instructional materials should make a clear distinction between individual-level and group-level variables. Individuals are components of groups; just as you cannot build good cars of inferior parts, so deficient groups are often composed of deficient people. Our teaching should partly be aimed at helping people become better group components. But stress should be on the group-level variables, and what can be done when a group-level characteristic is poor because of inferior member(s). Sometimes a group can improve its members, and thus the group is also improved. In addition to conceptualizing individual and group variables, students need to understand how small groups function as components of larger systems called "organizations," and how a group's structure is related to how it functions.

We Americans have developed an individualistic culture, based on the frontier mentality reflected in such mythic heroes as the *Lone* Ranger, Annie Oakley, Daniel Boone and the mountain man. An individualistic culture contrasts with a collective or group-oriented culture, in which individuals perceive themselves primarily as parts of a group, giving priority to group goals over self. Students need to understand how the values of Japanese, Tiawanese, Korean, some Scandinavian, and other collectivist cultures have contributed to their relative success in international competition. They need to know about the training in teamwork that is done in such corporations as IBM, Ford, and Saturn. One source book of special value for this is Larson and LaFasto's *Teamwork*. Managers of tomorrow come from all major fields; all need at least a Theory Z view of management as we move into a century of economic competition which will determine our relative place in the world.

II. PURPOSES OF AN INTRODUCTORY SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION COURSE

The perspective sketched above suggests the instructional objectives and content of an introductory small group communication course. Objectives should be stated as observable/measurable student responses, whether those responses are given on tests, on a variety of questionnaires and scales, in essay, or as a participant in groups. For example, on completion of such a course the student should be able to:

1. Describe the major characteristics of an "ideal" problem-solving group.
2. Demonstrate competency in perceiving specific group characteristics, such as decision-making and problem-

solving procedures, leader functions, communication procedures, and agenda setting.

3. Write an analytic description of the development, structure and throughput processes of a student project group.

4. Explain how to select inputs to initiate a new group for a defined purpose, and express a clear charge for almost any type of task group.

5. Demonstrate such personal values and competencies as open-mindedness to divergent information and ideas, responsibility for the success of any group of which s/he is a member, skills in critical thinking, willingness to communicate information that is relevant, skill in expressing information and ideas clearly and concisely, willingness to adjust self to group needs without violation of core values, rejection or rebellion against autocratic leadership by self or others, discovery of relevant information sources, and a high level of reflective thinking in contrast to unsystematic intuitive problem solving procedures.

6. Outline a group- and task-relevant problem-solving procedure modeled on scientific method and recent research by such small-group theorists as Hirokawa and Poole.

7. Demonstrate understanding of considerable terminology which has become relatively stable among small group and communication theorists, including such terms as group, small group, role, norm, rule, problem, problem solving, decision making, leader, designated leader, emergent leader, development, culture, cohesiveness and conflict management.

8. Explain and/or facilitate a number of selected small group techniques, including at least brainstorming, the problem census, the nominal group technique, a quality control circle procedure, teleconferences, buzz groups, and leader mediation of conflict.
9. Serve a small group as a "reminder" or non-participant process consultant.
10. Demonstrate a modicum of skill in assessing contingencies to which leadership services and procedures must be adjusted, and a realization that more than just one way may be appropriate and effective.

The other face of instructional objectives is the content of the course. The educated young person leaving campus needs to know how small groups fit into modern organizations. Through reading and viewing, the course should include an orientation to groups in the modern world. Except for those who have been very active in student government and possibly such organizations as scouting and campfire, few students have experience in many such groups. Classroom groups are rarely so involving of self as are work teams, task forces, quality circles, etc.

Part of the content should be the student as a group member: what kind of member would I be now? how can I become a more flexible, competent group participant/communicator/leader?

The course content must include a model of ideal task groups, such as outstanding surgical teams, task forces, work crews, autonomous work groups, and committees so the student has a standard for evaluating what he or she is experiencing in groups, and attempting to improve group work.

The content of the course must include a transactional perspective on communication process and skills in listening to understand, evaluate, and recall. The amount of attention given to scientific method in problem solving may vary with the students' backgrounds, but generally a systematic approach, the rationale for it, the research evidence supporting it, and specific applications belong in a service course.

How and when (contingencies) to provide various leadership services should definitely be part of every basic small group service course, including necessary administrative functions such as planning and keeping records, leading discussions, and group development. Every educated person is likely to be called on to serve small groups as a designated leader. Without training, many people are inflexible in the face of changing contingencies, and virtually ruin such groups. Emergent leaders all too often become tyrannical.

You may or may not need to include some guidance in doing library research. A brief orientation to interpreting and evaluating statistical data from surveys may be needed.

Finally, the content of such a course should include some introduction to observer techniques and tools in order to enhance the student's perceptions and equip him or her to serve in an advisory capacity as both non-participant and participant observer to secondary groups.

III. COURSE STRUCTURE

The Syllabus

The syllabus should be adequate to distinguish between this course and both other basic communication courses and small group courses offered in such departments as psychology, sociology, and counselling. If students are assigned to sections of a service course taught by a variety of instructors, one syllabus that details the course should govern all these sections, and be treated as a contract between the department (and college or university) and the student. The assignment to teach an introductory course is not a license, but a permit to teach within prescribed limits (I have been told that this idea has been established in courts). Adhering to the syllabus is a matter of personal responsibility to an ethical person. If she or he finds the syllabus unacceptable, the responsible instructor attempts to get it changed or refuses to teach the course. The personnel teaching a small group course normally could themselves function as a small group, or perhaps in an institution with a large enrollment, as an organization with several component small groups.

The syllabus should present the instructor's philosophy for the course (including the objectives in terms students can understand), list required materials, be explicit about all attendance and performance requirements, outline the content and scope of the course, describe the kinds of assignments and classroom activities in which the student will be required to participate, define the bases and process of grading, and the nature of the instructor's relationship to students. A copy of the syllabus should be distributed and explained to every student during the initial class meeting. Any student unsatisfied with the syllabus can then withdraw on an informed basis.

Assignments, Exercises, and Other Learning Activities

Student assignments would, of course, include preparing for class sessions by studying assigned chapters or other reading materials, and writing short papers. I think that some assignments are especially important in a small group course. I cannot imagine myself teaching such a class without a major group project, for which the students assume a high level of responsibility, maintain a personal journal or other record of observations about the group, and do a detailed written description, analysis and evaluation. The project can take any of many forms: a case study of some group or organization, a research project investigating a question or hypothesis about some aspect of small group dynamics, functioning as an advisory task force to some campus or community organization, creating an instructional program such as a videotape for training committee chairs, planning a quality control circle program for a local business, a handbook for committee members and chairs of a service organization, and so on. Such an assignment should be given early, so groups have time to form and function. The end product of the group must be real to the students, which means they actually sign and submit their recommendations to administrators or boards, show their videotape to appropriate audiences, submit the paper, or at least give a program to their classmates. Everyone in the group should receive the same grade for this output; each will receive an individual grade for the case study of the project group.

Other important assignments include planning outlines of questions for structuring problem solving discussions, detailed investigations and interpretations of problems, perhaps preparing for and participating in "Learning Thru Discussion," observing meetings of small groups and writing analytical reports, writing minutes for classroom groups, preparing meeting notices and other written documents for small groups, and diagnosing self as a potential group member.

If you think the assignments I've described involve a lot of writing, you're right! I've never figured out how to teach a small group or interpersonal course to my satisfaction without demanding a lot of writing from my students. For that reason, I'd prefer one prerequisite for a basic small group communication course: completion of a college-level composition course, or demonstrated proficiency in writing essays. Personally, I'd prefer not to teach a small group communication course *for college credit* open to just any entering freshman, literate or not.

Students should have opportunity to participate in and lead numerous problem-solving discussions — problems that are real to them, about which they can make some difference. They can prepare for leading such discussions, practice observing them and giving advisory and valuative feedback, practice follow-up skills, and more. Students can prepare descriptions of problems affecting them personally or involving friends and family members. They can learn to present information needed by an advisory group in the form of briefings, fact sheets, case studies, and so on. They can also gain experience in systematic problem solving through discussion of published cases.

Although I would not turn an introductory small group course into an encounter group, limited and controlled encounter can be used to great advantage among members of a student group who have spent several class periods working together on a number of problems. Feedback comments can be directed to specific characteristics or perceptions members have of each other ***as members***.

Examinations

Despite all the writing required for assignments, written examinations cannot be omitted as both valuative and instructional tools. Aside from the work of reading and grading them, I believe essay-type exams are far superior to short-answer exams for a small-group course, at least for the final exam. Only an essay exam can discover learning in the cognitive domain at the levels of analysis and synthesis. Probably the best I have done is to give students a long list of essay questions very early in the course, then promise that all or most of their final written exam will be a sample of these questions. These questions can include problems one might face in a small group (such as how to respond to a problem member, what to do with a counter-productive norm, what to include in a training program, or a sequence for solving a case problem). Then you can encourage the formation of study groups to explore the questions. It seems to me that the outcome is usually enhanced cooperative relationships, and greatly increased learning of the more abstract and difficult concepts and skills. For brief intermediate exams or quizzes, one can justifiably resort to short-answer tests involving true-false and other choice questions, multiple-choice questions, completion questions, and even matching. One technique some of my colleagues have used is to give a brief quiz on the assigned chapter at the beginning of the class hour. Such a quiz can also include a question or two from a lecture given during the previous meeting.

Teams of instructors in a multi-section course could prepare such exams and quizzes. If the course format includes mass lecture followed up by lab sections with individual instructors, a common examination will be imperative.

Evaluation

An evaluation is needed of at least two major components of an introductory small group course: individual student learning; and learning by the class, otherwise stated as "How well did the instructor achieve the objectives of the course?" Written assignments, observations of groups working in lab sessions, and students' answers on tests will tell an instructor how well cognitive objectives are being achieved. It is much harder to assess how effectively one is achieving objectives in the affective domain. I have used tests of authoritarianism, dogmatism, apprehension, assertiveness, leadership attitude, and other personality factors affecting group participation in before-versus-after designs as a way of appraising how well I've done as instructor in this regard. The occasional chance to talk with an alum can be enlightening if you ask a few questions about how the course may have affected the former student. And I expect almost all of us teaching introductory courses have some sort of scale we must give students near the end of the course on which they evaluate us as teachers, and perhaps place some judgment on the value of the course they are just completing. Though I've done a lot of study of such scales and helped in their design, I still have grave misgivings about their value in evaluating courses, instruction, or anything of importance to what I call education.

One method of evaluation that you may want to try because it has face value relevance to a small group course is to create a quality circle or two of volunteers in a class. Such a group, given a charge to make suggestions about how the course could be made more productive, can be a source of much information useful for evaluating how well one is doing long before the course has ended.

IV. TEACHING METHODS

For a multiple-section small group communication course involving graduate teaching assistants and other instructors with minimal background in the area, you may want to use a mass-lecture-plus-individual-lab-session format. All instructional staff would meet regularly to plan the course and work out details of activities, assignments, and examinations. All lab sections would then be doing the same activities at the same time. I have no personal experience with such a small-group course, but can readily sketch it out from the way we handle the basic interpersonal course at Southwest Missouri State, and the way I saw the public speaking course handled at Penn State. Although I might chafe under the restrictions such a program would place on me as an instructor, as a professor or administrator I would much prefer it to having semi-competent instructors with a great deal of autonomy.

In most cases, instructors will have considerable freedom within the parameters of an institution-approved syllabus. With such freedom I would definitely opt for a variety of "delivery" methods: lecture about such ideas as groups systems, in-class planning sessions to learn how to apply the general model of science to problem solving, case problems such as "Lost On the Moon" to practice skills and techniques such as guidelines for reaching consensus, demonstrations such as an instructor-led problem census, the "Learning Thru Discussion" format for study of detailed theory, and lots and lots of practice in group participation, observing groups, giving valuative critiques, and attending to the administrative details for actual small groups. In short, this is a practicum course. It will take more contact hours than credit hours if students are to develop competencies which will enable them to function well in small task groups. That leads me to some of the problem you may encounter in an introductory small group communication course.

V. PROBLEMS IN THE COURSE

One of the biggest problems I have encountered at the four colleges and universities where I have taught small group courses is that many students have almost no experience participating in small secondary groups. They know a lot more about primary groups from families, peer groups of friends, etc. A few bring extensive experience in religious organizations, student government, theatre, and outfits like a boy's club or girl scouts. I find it hard to impress students with little task group experience with the importance of much that I'm doing — indeed, I did not get interested in these things until I found myself elected president of a county teachers organization and secretary of a dog club (who really coordinated the club). A good textbook, interviews, guest presentations, some videos and films can help.

A serious problem, especially at commuter campuses, is finding times when project and other out-of-class groups can meet. This is growing worse all the time as students work longer hours to support themselves, pay college bills, and feed automobiles. I've had groups meet at 6:00 a.m. on Sunday morning — the members found that was about the only time all were free! Being aware that this is a problem can help students form groups that can find reasonable meeting times.

A lack of high-school-level writing skills handicaps any student required to do coherent writing. Such students are common on campuses where I've worked during the last 25 years. The more writing I do, the more this perturbs me. My suggestion, as stated above, is to require basic composition as a prerequisite. I've had almost no problem when enrollment was limited to sophomore and higher communication majors who had completed basic news writing courses.

Classrooms and equipment can be a terrible hassle. My students have frequently designed "ideal" facilities for their class; never have I had the pleasure of teaching in such facilities. Generally they design a large classroom (maybe 40 or 50 students in it) with a lot of small meeting rooms around it, or a large room with easily-moved sliding partitions. Each room is equipped with several audio recorders, and ideally a camcorder. Then each student can analyze recordings of discussions in which he has participated, especially when in the role of designated leader. All too often my classes are multi-ring circuses, with several contemporaneous groups creating a horrendous noise level that makes a recording undecipherable. Also, there would be at least one small room with a one-way glass installed so observers could discuss what they are observing without intruding. Some sort of playback stations are necessary if students are to listen to and analyze their recordings of their meetings.

But we muddle through in rooms designed for lecturing. I've taught in church basements, gymnasia, and even rooms with bolted-down seats. The best was a large room with lots of trapezoidal tables and stacks of chairs. Next year may Santa bring you a suite of specially designed and dedicated classrooms for small group courses!

VI. THE FUTURE OF SMALL GROUP COURSES

From the opening of this essay, you know that I believe the future will see an expansion of small group communication courses, provided we who write the textbooks and teach the classes continue to maintain contact with the working world. If what we teach serves the future members of corporate America well (whether that be government agencies, health facilities, research and development enterprises, General Motors and ConAgra, McDonalds, or educational systems), our business will grow. I say that because the future trend has been toward the past, when human work was basically done in groups, not as individuals. This is basic to what we are; we humans are like deer and sheep, which need others of their kind. We are not loners like grizzly bears, and our enterprises are too complex to work alone.

On the other hand, a lot of changes are coming, a few of which I think I see dimly, and many that I cannot imagine. But come they will. In the 40s, when an individual engineer could design a car engine and workers on assembly lines had no such thing as a team or autonomous work group, we began teaching about panel discussions and round tables. Some of us got carried away in humanistic experiential groups; others thought we had to be strictly social psychologists of group dynamics. But the wise ones, like Halbert Gulley and Frank Haiman, never lost sight of their functions as social engineers, people who needed to understand communication in groups and how to improve it by what they taught students. The late Kenneth Hance, for example, virtually invented the quality circle in a U.S. Steel plant before anyone even thought of a name like "quality control circle." So what may we need to consider as we teach group communication courses in the future? Maybe how computers can be a part of group communications (not the medium, not just computer conferencing). Maybe developing and maintaining small groups with international distribution of members (and all that implies in culture and space problems). Maybe how to re-civilize America, so it is a safe place to exist because people value society as much as self. But if we keep contact with the world around the academy, the small group course will be seen as a more fundamental part of the development of a twenty-first century person than it has in the past.

Introductory Communication Theory: Not Another Skills Course!

William C. Donaghy

Speech communication departments in every institution of higher education face unique circumstances when deciding their type and number of introductory courses. Different demands are placed on communication departments operating in community colleges, four year liberal arts colleges, land-grant institutions and major research universities. Some of these situational demands are: how the department is perceived by the administration (i.e., service or major oriented); whether skills courses are accepted as part of the college- or university-wide general education curriculum; whether the college or campus has a communication skills requirement; the college division in which the department is located (i.e., humanities, fine arts or social science); whether the department has a graduate program; and how the department perceives itself (i.e., teaching, service or research focused). An introductory course is defined as one without a prerequisite. The term "introductory" is preferred rather than "basic" since a common connotation for the latter term is "remedial," such as high school English or mathematics.

The main purpose of this paper is to describe an introductory communication theory course which meets the demands placed on the Department of Communication and Mass Media at the University of Wyoming. Other implications, however, are 1) the circumstances at the University of Wyoming appear to be similar to those found on many other campuses, 2) theory based introductory courses have several advantages over skills based courses, and 3) we may be doing our departments and discipline more harm that good by offering so many introductory skills courses.

Because of our discipline's traditional service obligation almost every communication department offers at least one fundamental communication skills course, usually public speaking. This practice is so common that many of us think of public speaking as THE introductory course. Recently, it has become more or less standard for speech communication departments to also offer an introductory interpersonal communication course. Again, this is typically a skills based course. Although speech communication majors sometimes enroll in these courses, they are primarily designed for students majoring in other disciplines. On some campuses these are the "bread and butter" courses for the department.

Communication skills courses are often so popular that many departments have begun devising offshoots of public speaking and interpersonal communication. One example is the "hybrid" course, which combines public speaking with other communication skills such as interpersonal communication, interviewing, and group communication. The business and professional speaking course is another hybrid offshoot which is designed to meet the particular needs of a specific audience. Some universities also teach skills courses for communication apprehensive students. There are probably many other variations as well. In almost all cases these offshoots have followed the skills based format found in public speaking and interpersonal communication.

Is this emphasis on skills courses at the introductory level helping or hurting our departments and our discipline? No doubt, skills courses are well accepted on most campuses, generate high enrollments, and help sustain a graduate program. But, what impression do we give to the rest of the campus when the bulk of what we teach freshman from other disciplines are skills courses? Are we giving the impression that all we have to offer is skill training? In a section titled

"The Movement Toward Skills" in his paper included in this forum, Joe DeVito claims:

> I think that a skills emphasis is easier to justify to administrators and university committees that a theory emphasis. The theory emphasis — especially when coupled with a relational emphasis — would be difficult to separate from many a psychology or sociology course. It isn't quite as unique as a skills emphasis course.

I disagree with Joe's statement although I know many would support it. At Hunter College, that may be an accurate statement, but at the University of Wyoming, it certainly isn't. The statement implies that communication is a subset of psychology or sociology and that all administrators expect of us are skills courses. If this were true at Wyoming we would have been eliminated long ago. The case Joe describes is one where I think the department has overemphasized skills courses to the point where all the administration and faculty see as unique about the discipline is it's skills emphasis. To give Joe his due, however, later in that same section he states:

> Skills are teachable; we can see the results from our teaching skills; it is difficult to see the results from our teaching theories. And perhaps as communication teachers many of us have been conditioned to look at skill development as a measure of our instructional effectiveness. ... Whether this (movement to skills) is for good or ill, however, is not clear in my mind.

With this observation, I can agree, but I have a greater concern about the movement toward skills than many. Let me tell you why.

BACKGROUND

When I first came to the University of Wyoming, we had three introductory courses: a basic public speaking course, an interpersonal communication course, and one called "Introduction to Human Communication." The purpose of the first two courses have remained essentially unchanged over the past two decades. The public speaking course is an individual skill development course offered primarily for non-communication majors and taught by graduate assistants. As with most skills courses, some theoretical material is presented, but the bulk of the course involves students giving speeches and receiving feedback. The interpersonal communication course is taught in essentially the same manner but with the focus on interactional skills. A faculty member lectures one hour per week and graduate assistants conduct the discussion sections, where interpersonal communication exercises are introduced, for the remaining two-thirds of the course. This course is also oriented to the non-communication major.

The introductory course that has seen the most evolution over the years is the third course. Originally the content of this course was very similar to that offered in interpersonal communication EXCEPT that it was taught by tenure-track faculty, there were few individual skill development activities, and the content breath and depth was much greater than in the interpersonal course. Because the course was so similar to the interpersonal communication course, students originally could not receive credit for both. It was designed primarily to introduce communication *majors* to other subjects taught in the department. While students from other disciplines did find their way into the course, it certainly was not marketed that way.

The typical content focus was on various cognitive processes (i.e., perception, motivation and the like), verbal and nonverbal communication, and communication contexts such as interpersonal, group, organizational, public, cross-cultural, and mass communication. The text Phil Emmert and I published (Emmert & Donaghy, 1981) is a good example of this beefed-up interpersonal approach. There are many other texts on the market that take essentially the same approach. Communication research and theory are seldom discussed directly. The focus is on concepts and principles derived from theory and research.

Several factors influenced our decision to move away from this curricular format. Although all three courses consistently maintained high enrollments, we felt we could better utilize our faculty if we didn't teach two courses that had such an obvious content overlap. Second, we switched from the College of Arts and Sciences humanities division to the social science division. This change better reflected our faculty's teaching and research focus, but it also put us in direct competition for general education enrollment with a different set of disciplines. Introductory social science courses are primarily theory oriented; whereas in the humanities, language and English instruction have a long tradition of skills instruction.

Third, at the University of Wyoming, the number of courses meeting the general education requirements has traditionally been an important operational definition of mission centrality. If there is one common question that is raised on all campuses, it is how do we fit the mission of our university, college and division? This becomes an especially important question when a University, such as ours, is facing cutbacks and reallocation decisions. Although the Arts and Sciences College faculty have undergone many changes in their general education philosophy, they have consistently objected to giving general education credit for skills courses; that includes English writing courses, music performance, courses, and basic drawing courses, as well as public speaking and interpersonal communication courses. I am aware that this is not true on all campuses.

The most persuasive argument for change was that our discipline has developed a strong theoretical base which should be presented to all students as early as possible. Why should we wait for students to reach our second level courses (if they ever do) before we present them with the basic methods and theories of our discipline? We no longer have to take a backseat to any academic department (including psychology and sociology). Littlejohn makes this point when he says "we once borrowed almost all our theories from fields tangentially concerned with communication; today, most important theories of communication are produced within the field" (288). Teaching only skills loosely derived from a theoretical base makes us appear intellectually inferior to the other disciplines.

With these considerations in mind, the faculty decided to develop an introductory communication theory course. That decision has since proved to be a wise choice. What follows is a description of the course as it is currently taught, some discussion of the problems we have faced, and the future of the course as we see it.

DESCRIPTION FOR THE COURSE

The introductory communication theory course is taught in a large lecture format for three hours credit. The enrollment in the course ranges from 100 to 150 students. It is taught by tenure track faculty on a rotating basis. We try to move instructors through this course on a one to two year basis; that is long enough for an instructor to get comfortable with the course, but not so long that he or she gets "burned out." It is a difficult course to teach, and two years is about all any of us can take at one stretch. The major difference between this course and the one that preceded it is that this course is designed to introduce speech communication methods and theory to students from all parts of the University. Our new departmental core curriculum also requires this introductory theory course for all communication and mass media majors.

Theoretical Overview

> This course is intended to serve as a general introduction to the theories and research questions investigated by social scientists interested in the processes of human communication. The course seeks to orient the beginning student to the major areas within communication by focusing on the types of questions scholars and practitioners ask, and the types of answers offered. (Fall, 1990, Communication Theory Course Syllabus)

One requirement of any introductory course that meets the general education criteria for Social and Behavioral Sciences is that it contain a substantial discussion of the methods of social scientific inquiry and how that differs from other forms of scholarly inquiry. Hence, the first week or two is devoted to examining the various types of scholarship, how knowledge is created, the process of inquiry, the nature and elements of theory, the scientific method, philosophical issues and the like. These themes are utilized throughout the course in assessing the credibility of various theoretical communication models. The major thrust of the course then turns to an examination of communication theory and how scholarship in the discipline relates to that in other behavioral science disciplines. Both general and context theories are examined, as well as the methods used to develop communication theory.

PURPOSE OF THE COURSE

Course Objectives

> The purposes of the course are to: (1) provide you with an initial understanding of the perspectives used to describe communication processes in human behavior; (2) introduce some basic concepts, theories and issues central to understanding human communication processes; (3) acquaint you with some of the major approaches used to study human communication, and (4) help you become a better communicator and understand the messages of others through the use of this knowledge. (Fall, 1990, Communication Theory Course Syllabus)

A second requirement of a University Studies course is that it allow students to relate the information gained to their own professional and personal activities. This is certainly not a difficult requirement to meet in a speech communication course. Along with human communication concepts, theories, methods and issues, we provide in-class and out-of-class assignments which require the student to apply this information to "real life" situations.

Course Content

When we first started this freshman level course, there were few books from which to choose. The main communication theory texts were written for junior/senior level students if not graduate students. Over the last several years we have used both Sarah Trenholm's (1986) and Stephen Littlejohn's (1989) texts with supplementary readings. I use these supplemental readings for several reasons noted below. Both the Trenholm and Littlejohn books present a real challenge for freshman students. Recently several new theory texts have become available. We will be evaluating those in the near future. Over the last three semesters, since I have been teaching the course, we have used the Littlejohn text. The basic content outline (see Table l) is taken primarily from that text. At an introductory level, I find it easier to adapt my teaching to the text. This causes less confusion for the student, and the outline provided in the Littlejohn text seems to be as good as any currently available.

Table 1
Communication Theory Course Content

- **The Social Science of Communication**
  - Types of Scholarship
  - The Creation of Knowledge
- **Theory in the Process of Inquiry**
  - The Process of Inquire
  - Basic Elements of a Theory
  - Functions of Theory
  - Philosophical Issues
- **The History of Communication Theory**
- **Communication Theory and Scholarship**
  - What is Communication Theory?
- **Structural and Functional Theories**
  - System Theories (Hegel, Darwin, Spencer, Etc.)
    - General System Theory (Bertalanffy)
    - Convergence Theory (Kincaid)
  - Cybernetics Theory (Weiner)
  - Information Theory (Shannon)
  - Semiology and Language
    - General Theory of Signs (Peirce, Eco, et al.)
    - Language Structure Theory (Saussure)
- **Structural and Functioanl Theories (continued)**
  - Post-Structuralist Theories
    - Grammatology (Derrida)
    - Discursive Formation Theory (Foucault)
  - Nonverbal Communication Theories
    - Kinesics Theory (Birdwhistell)
    - Proxemics Theory (Hall)
    - Nonverbal Signs Theory (Ekman & Friesen)
- **Cognitive and Behavioral Theories**
  - The Behavioral Tradition
    - Language/Behavior Theory (Skinner)
    - Persuasion/Behavior Theory (Yale U.)
    - Semantic Space Theory (Osgood)
    - Generative Grammar Theory (Chomsky)

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Cognitive and Behavioral Theories (continued)

- The Cognitive Tradition
    - Stimulus-Response (S-R) Link
    - Social Judgment Theory (Sherif)
    - Constructivist Theory (Delia)
    - Social Cognition Theory (Kelly)
    - Action-Assembly Theory (Greene)
    - Comm. Apprehension Theory (McCroskey)
    - Info. Integration Theory (Anderson et al.)
- Expectancy-Value Theory (Fishbein)
- Elaboration Likelihood Theory (Petty & Cacioppo)
- Consistency Theories
    - Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger)
    - Belief/Attitude/Value Theory (Rokeach)

Interactional and Conventional Theories

- Symbolic Interactionist Theories
    - Symbolic Interactionist Theory (Mead)
    - Chicago School Theory (Burke)
    - Iowa School Theory (Kuhn)
- Dramatistic Theories
    - Landmark Symbol Theory (Burke)
    - Social Approach Theory (Goffman)
    - Convergence Theory (Bormann)
- Social Reality Theories
    - The Social Construction of Reality
    - Personal and Social Being Theory (Harre)
    - Social Accountability Theory (Shotter)

Interactional and Conventional Theories (continued)

- Communication Rules Theories
    - Ordinary Language Theory (Wittgenstein)
    - Speech Act Theory (Searle)
    - Rule-Governing Theory (Shimanoff)
    - Contingency Rules Theory (Smith
    - Coordinated Management of Meaning Theory (Pearce & Cronen)

Interpretative and Critical Theories

- Sociolinguistics
    - Linguistic Relativity Theory (Sapir/Short)
- Ethnography
- Interpretive Theories
    - Classical Hermeneutics (Schleiermacher, Epoche, Heidegger, & Others)
    - Social or Cultural Hermeneutics Schutz)
    - Textual Hermeneutics (Ricoeur)
    - Philosophical Hermeneutics (Gadamer)
- Critical Theories
    - Muted Group Theory (Ardener)
    - Marxist Theory (Frankfurt School)
    - Universal Pragmatics (Habermas)

Interpersonal Communication Theories

- Personal Processes
    - Interpersonal Knowledge Theory (Berger)
    - Attribution Theory (Heider)
    - Attribution Theory (Kelley)
    - Self Disclosure (Jourard)
    - Rhetorical Sensitivity Theory (Hart)
    - Communicator Style Theory (Norton)

Interpersonal Communication Theories (continued)

- Discourse Processes
  - Conversational Maxims Theory (Grice)
  - Propositional Coherence Theory (van Dijk)
  - Sequencing Coherence Theory (Sacks)
  - Rational Coherence Theory (Jackson & Jacobs)
  - Compliance-Gaining Theory (Wheelis)
- Relational Processes
  - Relational Communication Theory (Bateson)
  - Relational Theory (Watzlawick, et al.)
  - Relational Control Theory (Millar & Rogers)
  - Relational Perception
    - Metaperception Theory (Laing)
    - Relational Dimension Theory (Burgoon)
    - Relational Competence Theory (Spitzberg)
  - Relational Development
    - Balance Theory (Newcomb)
    - Social exchange Theory (Thibaut/Kelley)
    - Social Penetration Theory (Miller))
    - Disengagement Theories (Duck/Baxter
  - Relational Conflict
    - Game Theory (Neumann/Morgenstern)
    - Persuasion & Conflict Theory (Simons)
    - Attribution Theory of Conflict (Sillars)

Group Communication Theories

- Field Theory (Levin)
- Input-Process-Output Model
  - General Organizing Model (Collins, et al.)
  - Group Syntality Theory (Cattell)
  - Groupthink Theory (Janis)
  - Faulty Decision Making Theory (Hirokawa)
  - Interaction Process Analysis Theory (Bales)
  - Decision Emergence Theory (Fisher)
- The Structurationist Perspective
  - Structuration Theory (Giddens)
  - Group Structuration Theory (Poole)
  - Multiple Sequence Theory (Poole)

Organizational Communication Theories

- Structure and Function
  - Bureaucratic Theory (Weber)
- Systems Approach
  - Integrative Theory (Farace, et al.)
  - Unobtrusive Control Theory (Tompkins/Cheney)
- Human Relations Approach
  - Four Systems Theory (Likert)
  - Theory of Organizing (Weick)
  - Org. Structuration Theory (Poole/Maphee)
- Organizational Culture
  - Performance Culture Theory (Pacanowsky)
  - Conflict Culture Theory ((VanMaanen/Barley)

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- **Mass Media Theories**
  - The Mass Media
    - Popular Media Theory (McLuhan/Innis)
    - Semiotic Media Theories (Fry/Fry)
  - Media as Social Institution
    - British Cultural Studies (Hoggart/Williams)
  - Media and Audience
    - Two-Step Flow Hypothesis (Lazarsfeld)
    - Innovation Diffusion Theory (Rogers
    - Spiral of Silence Theory (Noelle-Neumann)
  - Theories of Cultural Outcomes
    - Mass Comm. Functions Theory (Lasswell)
    - Cultivation Theory (Gerbner)
    - Agenda Setting Function (Lippman)
  - Theories of Individual Outcomes
    - Reinforcement Theory (Klapper)
    - Powerful Effects Theory (Noelle-Newman)
    - Uses & Gratifications Theory (Blumler/Katz)
    - Dependency Theory (Ball-Rokeach/DeFleur)
    - Uses & Dependency Model (Rubin/Windahl)
- **Public Communication Theories**
- **Intercultural Communication Theories**
- **Trends in Communication Theory**

COURSE STRUCTURE

Syllabus

I use an extensive syllabus in this course. Besides the course content, broken up into daily reading, lecture and application assignments, the syllabus contains information related to examinations, exercises and the evaluation procedure. The supplemental readings packet contains the syllabus, a study guide for each chapter, and sample questions taken from previous pop quizzes and examinations. In the future I also intend to add fairly extensive application exercise descriptions to the packet as well.

Student Assignments

Outside-of-class activities are assigned throughout the semester. These observation papers, journals and other activities require the student to apply the materials learned in class to their own experiences. In conjunction with the semiology section, for example, students find and report on various signs in their environment. When we discuss nonverbal communication theories, the students observe various types of nonverbal behavior and write a short paper describing these observations. When we study muted group theory, students keep a log of the sexist language they find in their environment. When we get into contextual theories, students are required to keep a journal of communication episodes in various contexts, including dyadic relationships, group meetings, organizations they come in contact with, and what they see and hear from the media. These assignments are usually evaluated on a pass/fail basis. The purpose of these assignments is cognitive awareness, not practice in performance. Individual skill development, such as public speaking or interpersonal communication assignments, are not included as student activities.

Course Examinations

Normally there are three or four examinations during the semester. The examinations are all objective, consisting of multiple choice and true-false questions. Two forms are developed for each examination. Both have the same questions but in a different order and multiple choice questions have a different foil distribution. Each form is also copied on a different colored paper, to ensure that students sitting next to one another other do not have the same form. Examinations are taken in a larger room which allows for an empty seat on either side of each student. No make-up exams are given unless "authorized" excuses are provided *prior* to the examination day. The mean examination score is about 75%.

Pop quizzes are given over the reading and lecture material throughout the semester. These quizzes are *not* announced. There are no make-up quizzes. The quizzes are usually easier than the examinations. The main purpose of the quizzes is not necessarily to test content knowledge but to keep the students reading and maintain good class attendance without taking roll. With a class this size, taking attendance requires almost half the class period.

In addition, part of the grade comes from class participation. Since attendance is not taken, roll sheets are passed around from time to time and count as class participation. Satisfactory completion of the in- and out-of-class exercises also counts as class participation. Finally, students are sometimes asked to participate in a department research project and this counts as class participation as well. The traditional grade cutoffs (90% = A, 80% = B, 70% = C, and 60% = D) are used to score all examinations and pop quizzes as well as determining the final grade.

Course Exercises

Because of the course size, in-class exercises are primarily selected from those that can be done with large groups. Sample activities include a symbol-using exercise where students must identify various symbols used in our culture including words, icons, sounds, and pictures and the feedback exercise where volunteers describe a series of rectangles so others can draw them, using no feedback, limited feedback and full feedback. We also do a modified version of the Prisoner's Dilemma game in-class to demonstrate cooperation and competition during the discussion of game theories. There are, however, only a limited number of exercises which can be done with over 100 students in a short time period. When time permits, film and videotape material are also used to illustrate the content.

Course Evaluation

At our University, course evaluation has never been very systematic. Every department uses a different method of gathering peer and student responses to a course. Recently the Department of Communication and Mass Media has instituted some new course evaluation procedures including peer visitations and exit interviews with students. In general, however, student evaluations of the course are fairly good compared to those in other introductory social science courses (above 3.0 on a five point scale). When compared to evaluations generated in skills courses or upper division courses, the evaluations are rather low. As is true with student course evaluations in general, the expected grade is the single best predictor of the course evaluation; those students who do well in the course generally like it, while those who don't do well can usually find a reason to blame the content, text, or instructor.

Information obtained from other communication instructors and advisors in other departments tends to be more positive. They like the new structure in that students come into their courses with a breath of knowledge about communication which was missing before. They find students using information gained from this course in subsequent, upper division courses. Constantly increasing enrollment is one of the best indications that students and faculty are evaluating the course positively.

TEACHING METHODS

Some of our faculty have found the course beyond their capabilities. Because of the challenging text content, I find it necessary to spend at least one full class period working the students through each of the major theory chapters. Last summer, two graduate students helped me put together a packet of supplementary readings which deal with the major theories in each chapter. The purpose of these readings is to supplement and reinforce my discussion of the theories and explain the content in a way that is more understandable to lower division students. These readings also appear in the student's packet. In the future I hope other course instructors will refine that information.

While discussing the various communication methods and theories, I naturally try to add additional information and tend to focus on those I find most interesting. I also find, however, I must get back to primary sources for many theories outside my speciality areas. The course forces me to keep up with new concepts and developments in all areas of our discipline and may be an important, unintended, benefit of such a course for the department. Students ask questions during these discussions about anything they do not understand. I try to answer them to the best of my ability, even if I have to delay my response until I can obtain the information. I also spend one day before each examination reviewing and answering questions on the material to be covered.

The amount of effort devoted to making sure students understand the basic concepts, issues, and theories, does not leave much time for enrichment lectures. I have thought of taking the approach some others use and making the students individually responsible for text material no matter how difficult and confusing it may be. That's just not my style, however; so after working through the basic content and taking time out for test preparation and examinations, I usually have 12 to 15 class periods for enrichment lectures. In my case, for example, I spend two class periods discussing nonverbal communication principles and theories because the text does not give this area much attention. I also present enrichment lectures on such topics as the history of communication as a discipline, listening, conflict, public communication and intercultural communication. When the course is taught by other instructors, they naturally focus on enrichment material that is most interesting to them.

PROBLEMS IN THE COURSE

General Problems

There are several reasons why some faculty find this course hard to teach. One reason is the amount of preparation it takes to get familiar with so many different theories. The graduate preparation of many new professors has not included the theory and methods used in sub-specialities within our discipline. The alleged rhetorical/behavioral science split is the most obvious, but a quantitative/qualitative division is also appearing. We find new faculty know a great deal about one context such as interpersonal communication, but little about groups, organizational, or mass communication. In my opinion, this is a fault of our M. A. level preparation where breath should be emphasized.

A second reason some faculty have problems in this course is a lack of effective classroom management strategies. Like any large lecture class, students are prone to be somewhat rude at times. They try to get away with arriving late, leaving early, reading a newspaper, talking to one another, and asking frivolous questions. Student feedback occasionally indicates confusion, disagreement and even hostility. They test each new instructor. This is especially true of students from other disciplines who don't necessarily want to take a social science course in the first place. It is a challenge to make some of the theories and concepts meaningful to these students. The text provides some helpful examples and explanatory material but Littlejohn tries to stay with the scholarly terminology as much as possible. Many students find this confusing without adequate explanation by the instructor.

Just the pure mechanics of recording grades on pop quizzes and tests is difficult for some instructors in a course of this size. We do not have the resources to provide much assistance for instructors teaching large courses. I use a spread sheet computer program to perform the gradebook functions. I have developed a spreadsheet program which sums the pop quiz, test and total points; deducts points for absences and incomplete assignments; provides a running grade percentage and letter grade for each student; and even maintains a continuous course GPA. The running grade percentage is useful when the student affairs office, educational opportunity office, fraternity and sorority groups, or the athletic department want progress reports on students. I also provide this information to each student at least three times a semester (after each examination). If the students have been keeping track of their own scores and absences, they can check to make sure my (and their) records are accurate. They also know exactly where they stand at any point in the course. This reduces the amount of argument about final grades.

Another course problem involves grading, distributing and reviewing examinations. Some instructors end up arguing with students about exam questions and grades. I use University facilities to scan the test answer sheets and get an item analysis as well as descriptive statistics. It takes at least twenty minutes just to distribute each exam. I provide an answer sheet for each test along with the answer form and test. The answer sheet also contains information regarding the percentage of students that got each question correct and the predictive value for each question (i.e., point-biserial correlation of how students in each quintile for the entire exam did on each individual question). I do not allow students to argue in class about any question where more than 40% of the class got the answer right or one which has a high predictive value. Students who still want to argue about one of these question can talk with me during office hours. Over the last two years I have had no more than a half dozen students avail themselves of that opportunity.

Campus Problems

The state of Wyoming, like several other mineral dependent states, has been undergoing financial problems for the last several years. Wyoming has no property or state income tax, so it has been hit especially hard. The University of Wyoming is primarily state supported and, therefore, has had to deal with little or no salary increases, high turnover, faculty cutbacks, reallocation decisions, program justifications, and many similar problems. Our Arts and Sciences College is becoming increasingly unwilling to provide lower division courses for other colleges without adequate compensation from those colleges.

Our Department has been targeted twice in the last five years for reduction or elimination. We have had to justify the existence of both our undergraduate and graduate programs; in each case, the justification required was not on the basis of enrollment, but on our centrality to the mission of the University. There was never a question of the need for our service courses. The issue was why is a separate department and degree program required merely to teach service courses? Major questions were raised about how we fit the mission of the Arts and Sciences College and University, how we justify ourselves as a social science, how a communication major is at least as important than other majors, and how our research is important and integrated into our curriculum as well as that of other departments.

In the eyes of many we were (and still are) simply a service department. Before we changed the communication theory course, that was not necessarily a misinterpretation. *We did it to ourselves !* Like many departments we had been focusing most of our energies at the introductory level on the traditional skills courses. We had to justify our value and establish our legitimacy as a social science. As we have gotten our courses approved for general education, as more departments are recommending and as more students are taking our content courses, we have begun to be perceived as a viable academic discipline. We are even gaining acceptance as an important social science discipline. We are finding some other unexpected benefits as well. For example, although the number of majors has remained essentially the same, the quality of our majors (as determined by overall GPA) has improved. We also find they take greater pride in being a communication major. This is due in part, I think, to the fact that the communication theory course is rigorous, and students from all parts of the University have to work hard to pass. We still have a long way to go, but we are now on the "right" course.

THE FUTURE OF THE COURSE

At the University of Wyoming, the future of the communication theory course looks very bright. As of November 1990, the course meets the social and behavioral sciences requirement for the newly instituted University Studies (i.e., general education) program, and we are submitting several others for various categories in University Studies. The course matches up very well with the other University Studies social science courses. By the number of new communication theory textbooks being published, I suspect that others are facing similar issues at their institutions.

We still face many questions with regard to this course and others in the department. Should we strive for breadth or depth? How much depth can we expect from lower division students given this is now a core course in our curriculum? What content is actually necessary to prepare students for upper division courses? What is it that students from other parts of the university need to know about communication processes and how much do we accommodate their expectations? How do we use this course in recruiting majors? Should we continue using the more challenging texts such as Littlejohn and Trenholm or should we switch to one that is easier for the students to understand but handles fewer theories in less depth? What is the appropriate mix between knowledge of theories and application in the student's life? Those questions will be continually debated within our department and in the discipline.

Finally, we are once again questioning how much effort we should be devoting to service courses. What is the optimum balance? We are using a rough rule of thumb of 20% skills and performance courses, 20% methods courses, and 60% theory courses, but the appropriateness of these percentages has not been adequately assessed. Obviously, these percentages will be different for an institution with a different set of circumstances. I am convinced, however, that at my institution shifting resources away from skills service courses and into general education and major theory courses is doing us more good than harm. Aside from the benefits I have already mentioned, it is helping us clarify the focus and future of the entire departmental curriculum. Perhaps it is also a good time to think about the focus and future of our discipline, and the focus and future of any discipline is in large part reflected in the nature of its introductory course(s). Maybe we don't really need another introductory skills course.

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The Interpersonal Communication Course

Joseph A. DeVito

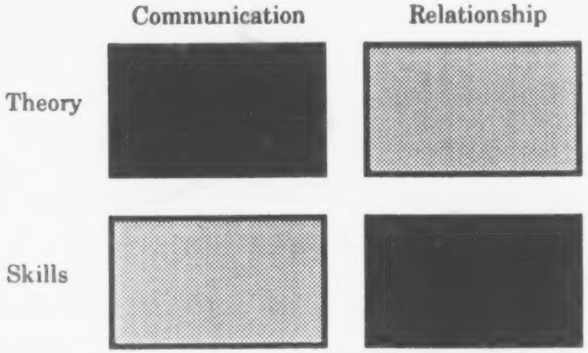
The interpersonal communication course is one of the really great courses in the entire communication curriculum and, in fact, in the entire academic curriculum. It is relevant to just about everything you do — to your satisfaction with yourself, to your effectiveness on the job, to your success as a friend or lover. And students know this and quickly become involved and motivated.

Even the research is exciting — it addresses significant issues in truly imaginative ways and is always advancing our knowledge and understanding of interpersonal communication and interpersonal relationships in important ways. It's a great course to teach and a great course to write a textbook for. My task here is to look at the interpersonal communication course as a textbook writer as well as as a teacher of interpersonal communication and describe the course — its purposes, structure, teaching methods, and problems. My last task — the most difficult but also the most challenging — is to speculate on the future of the course.[1]

DESCRIPTION AND PURPOSES OF THE COURSE

The introductory course in interpersonal communication is actually several different courses which, I think, can be indexed on two dimensions: a skills-theory dimension and a communication-relationship dimension.[2]

Any interpersonal communication course or textbook can, I think, be indexed in this two-dimensional space:



A two-dimensional space for the interpersonal communication course.

Of course, every course and every interpersonal textbook covers both skills and theory and both communication and relationships. So, it is really a question of emphasis. For example, I think Steve Duck's *Relating to Others* (1988) would be most clearly in the theory-relationship quadrant. Mark Knapp's *Interpersonal Communication and Human Relationships* (1984) would also be in this quadrant but would lean closer to both communication and skills than would Duck's. I think my *Messages: Building Interpersonal Communication Skills* (1990a) would be in the skills-communication quadrant but would lean toward the relationship, whereas my *Interpersonal Communication Book* (1988) would be pretty close to the center of all four quadrants. (I want to resist classifying the other books for fear that I might do so in ways that their authors might disagree with.)

When you design your interpersonal course or select or write an interpersonal communication text, you probably ask yourself questions concerning the emphasis you want to give your course and the emphasis you want your textbook to demonstrate about skills and theory and about communication and relationships.

COURSE STRUCTURE

The course structure will vary depending on the specific orientation of the course along the skills-theory, communication-relationship dimensions.

1. **The theory-communication oriented course** seeks to explain the research and theory in interpersonal communication. For this kind of course — which would probably be a graduate or advanced undergraduate course — you would probably use Brain Spitzberg and William Cupach's *Interpersonal Communication Competence* (1984) or their *Handbook of Interpersonal Competence Research* (1989). Your aim here would be to identify what is known about interpersonal competence.

In this course, you might address such issues as how to categorize the functions of feed-forward, does protection theory or equilibrium theory best explain spatial behavior, what behaviors convey empathy, and how is agreement signaled.

2. **The theory-relationship oriented course** seeks to explain the theory and research in interpersonal relationships. In this kind of course — which again would probably be a graduate or advanced undergraduate course — your aim

would be to identify what is known about interpersonal relationships and especially about communication in interpersonal relationships.

In this course you might cover such topics as how accurately and completely does social exchange theory explain past and present interpersonal relationships, does equity theory work for cohabiting and married couples in the same way, do lesbian, homosexual, and heterosexual couples follow the same relationship progression in development, maintenance, deterioration, dissolution, and repair.

3. **The skills-communication oriented course** begins with the theoretical foundation of interpersonal competence research and theory (on the part of the teacher and textbook writer). It uses this foundation to teach those skills that will help the student communicate more effectively in a wide variety of interpersonal situations. This course is the interpersonal counterpart of our public speaking courses where we teach students how to prepare and deliver a wide variety of public speeches.

In the skills-communication course you might teach students how to communicate empathy, supportiveness, and openness, how to manage the communication interaction to the satisfaction of both parties, when and how to self-disclose, and how to selectively self-monitor their behaviors.

4. **The skills-relationship oriented course** is probably the most complex of all four orientations since its effective development must rest on the theory and research in both interpersonal communication and interpersonal relationships. But, it must go beyond this to offer the skills for interacting in relationships — for developing, maintaining, repairing, and dissolving a wide variety of relationships.

In this course you might deal with how to become more effective in friendships, loves, and family relationships, how to express cherishing behaviors, how to be selectively open in relationships, and how to communicate emotions in family situations.

Of course, all four orientations intersect and no course is likely to concentrate on any of these four extremes. The four general types are merely intended to illustrate the directions in which you might go or the emphases you might consider in developing a course in interpersonal communication. This typology might also prove useful in identifying some of the possible changes that this course might go through.

TEACHING METHODS

The teaching methods will vary widely on the basis of class size and, of course, teaching goals and course orientation.

Interpersonal communication courses in most places are offered in relatively small sections — say 30 or so students. In some cases — my own, for example — the course is a large lecture course with three or four hundred students. When this large lecture format is imposed — without any laboratory sections — there is little chance for working on interpersonal skills in any way that would prove meaningful. The opportunities for personalized feedback or for modeling, for example, are at best rare. These courses will often be forced to focus on theory (DeVito, 1986 & DeVito 1990b). When the class is relatively small, there is greater likelihood that skill development will be emphasized. The structure of the course dictates, to some extent, its function. Were administrators really concerned with educating students, function would dictate structure.[3]

The method of teaching can vary from lecture (perhaps mediated) through discussion through experiential. Again, it is likely that the course structure will influence the method used. Generally, the greater the theory component, the greater the emphasis on lecture; the greater the skills component, the greater the emphasis on experiential methods.

PROBLEMS OF THE COURSE

There are many problems facing the interpersonal communication course that are shared by lots of other courses — the low reading scores of students, the lack of funds to offer individualized instruction, the large rewards given for publication (and the small rewards given for teaching) that force teachers to put most of their time and energy into publication rather than teaching.

The most glaring problem that I see — and this may not be typical throughout the country — is the tremendous diversity in student competencies. Some students can read and write with great ease and style; they have developed considerable analytic abilities and have experienced (with awareness and mindfulness) a great deal. To them we owe fairly sophisticated concepts and in-depth analyses of research and theory. Other students have trouble reading a really elementary textbook — say one that is written at a 10th grade level — and have no idea what a grammatical sentence looks like. They lack analytical skills and are relatively naive about communication and about relationships. To these students we owe a more carefully designed developmental sequence that begins at a basic level of competence and raises this to as sophisticated a level as possible. When these students are in the same class — as, it seems, they always are, we have to make decisions that will not be equally productive for all students. And it's frustrating.

Another problem is that different students have different skill needs. Some students need very basic skills — how to open a conversation, how to recognize time cues, how to self-disclose appropriately, how to ask for a raise. Other students need more advanced skills — how to express empathy to someone expressing a position you disagree with, how to gain compliance from a superior, how to break up a relationship and do as little damage as possible. Some, of course, want and need communication skills while others want and need relationship skills.

A third problem is that the research and theory is growing so rapidly that it is difficult to integrate these findings and perspectives into a meaningful whole, especially when that meaningful whole is skills-based. It is difficult and extremely time consuming, for example, to develop skill development exercises to reflect these new findings and theoretical positions. This problem — unlike the previous two — is actually a fun problem — it is a challenge which keeps us active thinkers. Another problem that is probably felt most acutely by the textbook writer is the religious and philosophical biases that vary from one end of the spectrum to the other and that people integrate into their courses — a bias that has nothing to do with the literature in interpersonal communication and interpersonal relationships. Thus, for example, one reviewer wanted divorce described as "amputation" and wanted me to use very specific religious principles as the foundation for the discussion of relationships. These injunctions must be fiercely resisted because they will destroy the scientific foundation for an entire discipline. This does not mean that we cannot look at interpersonal communication and interpersonal relationships from a religious or philosophical perspective. It does mean, I think, that we cannot teach a course or write a textbook in interpersonal communication or relationships and use it as a pulpit to advocate specific religious doctrine.

THE FUTURE OF THE COURSE

We can look at the future of the interpersonal communication course in terms of its movement on the theory-skill dimension, in terms of new courses, and in terms of the changes in focus that will revolve around the communication-relationship dimension.

The Movement Toward Skills

As I see it, the interpersonal communication course —at least as a general service course that meets university requirements for arts or humanities — will move in the direction of increased skills orientation. I see this happening for a number of reasons.

First, I think that a skills emphasis is easier to justify to administrators and university committees than a theory emphasis. The theory emphasis — especially when coupled with a relational emphasis — would be difficult to separate from many a psychology or sociology course. It isn't quite as unique as a skills emphasis course.

Second, and this reason relates to the first, is that our students' communication skills — in speaking and writing — seem at an all time low. It's obvious to everyone in a college setting — at least most college settings — that these skills need to be strengthened.

To the extent that business and industry dictate our curriculum, the movement will be in the direction of skills. We don't want our students to go unemployable and part of employability is the communication skills of our students. And so, we will teach to meet the need.

In a 1985 issue of *Playboy,* in their "Playboy Guide: Back to Campus '85," the editors advised students to take three courses: statistics, business writing, and public speaking (1985). In the next few years, interpersonal communication will no doubt be one of the three essential courses, whether *Playboy* recognizes it or not.

Students want success and they want us to teach them how to be successful. There are actually few courses in the college curriculum that teach students how to be successful — personally, socially, and professionally. Interpersonal communication is one of these elite courses. And students know this; they know that communication skills will contribute greatly to their success. And that is at least one reason why our courses are almost invariably oversubscribed.

Skills are teachable; we can see the results from our teaching of skills; it is difficult to see the results from our teaching theories. And perhaps as communication teachers, many of us have been conditioned to look at skill development as a measure of our instructional effectiveness.

Communication skills are also fun to teach; they require active involvement, are invigorating, and immediately satisfying to both students and teachers.

For these and for probably many other reasons, this movement to skills seems inevitable. Whether this is for good or ill, however, is not as clear in my mind. There is always the danger that in our movement to skills we will commit the same sin that our elocutionary counterparts committed and that was to offer specific suggestions for effectiveness without the necessary research base.

A second sin the elocutionists committed — at least as currently stereotyped — was in their concern for appearances rather than for content. Our own interpersonal skills training is unbalanced, I think, in the same way. While, I think, we do give some attention to content, we focus more on appearances. Thus, for example, we consider the nature of affinity-seeking and compliance-gaining strategies and how to use them but we do not devote equal attention to when these are appropriate or to their ethical implications. We discuss power —

powerful and powerless speech, for example — but we discuss much less the relationship that power bears to substance or the ethical and unethical uses of power in relationships. This concern for appearances is also demonstrated by the absence of the discussion of ethics in most of our interpersonal communication textbooks.

So, while interpersonal communication teachers will be pressured to offer skills training, we must only offer what can be scientifically supported. And we must subordinate appearances to content and substance and to the ethical implications of communication effectiveness.

The relationship oriented course will also become more concerned with relationship skills, for example, how to reduce loneliness, how to increase happiness, how to ask for a date, how to discuss relational problems with your mate, how to reduce interpersonal stress, how to discuss commitment, how to write premarital agreements.

New Courses

While the introductory service course will come to focus more and more on interpersonal communication skills, other interpersonal courses will be created. Three possible new courses — already implied in our four part typology — would be: interpersonal communication theory, interpersonal relationship theory, and interpersonal relationship management.

There will also emerge courses devoted entirely to or substantially to the application of interpersonal skills to a variety of fields. The "Interpersonal Communication in Business" course that already exists and for which there are suitable textbooks may serve as the prototype. "Interpersonal Skills in Counseling" and "Interpersonal Skills for the Teacher" are obvious additions.

Focus Changes

We will also see a variety of more specific changes, changes in focus. For example, listening will begin to focus more on memory — for information, for people. This will probably result because memory is an obvious social and business skill that is essential for effective interpersonal communication. Listening is also an area that has been recognized — and rightly so — for its centrality to all forms of communication, but it has been embarrassing in its lack of research and theory. But that should change in the next several years. We will see greater emphasis on the pragmatic-behavioral approach to interpersonal communication, on conversational management, on compliance gaining, or ingratiation strategies, on affinity seeking. This seems a natural outgrowth of the increased emphasis on skills.

There will be a greater emphasis on lesbian and gay relationships — an area where our courses, research, theory, and textbooks have virtually ignored. Interpersonal relationships are not always between Mary and John.[4] The heterosexual bias that permeates our literature will, I think, be reduced and perhaps eventually replaced by a less restrictive focus. In a similar way, interpersonal communication will integrate more effectively and more extensively the literature and insights from intercultural communication. The hidden assumption that we communicate with persons from the same culture will give way to a more realistic assumption, namely that we are all culturally diverse and that our communications must recognize this.

Currently, we virtually ignore relationships among those with sensory deficits. For example, we say little about communication in general and about interpersonal communication and relationships in particular with the blind or the hearing impaired. This should change and probably will change in the near future.

Oddly enough we have little to say about sex — about communication in sex, about sex as communication, and about the role of sex in interpersonal relationships — in attraction and in the developmental stages of relationships, for example. We say much less, for example, than our colleagues in sociology and psychology. I think this will change.

We will also, I think, devote more attention to temporary relationships — between teacher and student, customers and service personnel, employee and employer, and even client and prostitute.

We will also devote at least some attention to the role of the telephone in interpersonal communication and in interpersonal relationships. We currently ignore the telephone, although we would all probably agree that it plays a central role in interpersonal relationships. And we would also have to agree, I think, that telephone communication is different enough from face-to-face communication to warrant special consideration. Also, the popularity of the 900 numbers for self-disclosing, for exchanging fantasies, and for meeting potential partners will surely occupy some of our attention. We will also give more attention to relationships in contexts other than the student dormitory and to subjects other than students. The fact that our literature on love — what love is, what it means, and the influence it has on our lives, on relational deterioration and dissolution, and on relational intimacy — is based on college student responses to questionnaires can only weaken the scientific foundation that we need for any interpersonal course. Relationships of the street, in the military, in prisons, and in hospitals, for example, will be given greater attention. And hopefully we will go beyond the college classroom for insight into interpersonal communication and interpersonal relationships.

Whether or not the interpersonal course will undergo these changes or others is of course impossible to predict. That the course will undergo changes in response to the needs of our students and to the theoretical and research advances that are sure to come seems much more certain. The course will surely continue to grow in both interest and relevance to students, to teachers, and to textbook writers. And that's a pretty exciting prospect.

NOTES

[1] I've been very fortunate in having so many professionals in interpersonal communication share their insights with me over what the nature of the interpersonal course should be, the main changes the course and the field are undergoing, the problems with the course, and so many other topics. So, in addition to the journal articles, the textbooks, and the convention papers, I've made extensive use of the reviews of my own books. Between *The Interpersonal Communication Book* and *Messages: Building Interpersonal Communication Skills,* I've had about 100 detailed reviews, spanning about 15 years, in which the very questions we're considering here were also addressed by these reviewers.

[2] Of course, the interpersonal communication course, like any other course, can also be indexed in terms of its difficulty level, interest level, real world v. philosophical world view, and so on. The skills-theory and communication-relationship dimensions are singled out because they are particularly relevant to the interpersonal communication as it exists today and to the changes that it is undergoing.

[3] Consider the same situation as it would occur in public speaking — if relatively small, the course becomes one in effective public speaking where the student prepares and delivers a variety of public speeches. If the course grows to several hundred without any small sections, the course becomes one in which the focus is on understanding the theory of public communication and with the effects that public speaking has in the political and social arena.

[4] In my own courses where I try to integrate research on gay and lesbian relationships and try to avoid the heterosexual bias that permeates our scholarly and pedagogical literature, I invariably get notes stuffed into my mailbox — often written anonymously — that thank me for not ignoring the gay and lesbian students, for not making these students feel that a course in interpersonal relationships excludes them.

Compare, for example, Steve Duck's comment, in his chapter on "Developing a Steady and Exclusive Partnership: Courtship," (*Relating to Others,* 65): "For similar reasons ["space limitations and the relative scarcity of such research at present"], I shall confine my remarks to romances between opposite-sex partners; readers may have their own ideas about the degree to which what I have to say here applies to gay and lesbian relationships." While I can't argue with "space limitations" since each author has a right to define the scope of his or her own book, I would question "the relative scarcity of such research at present." For a good start see John DeCecco, ed., *Gay Relationships* (New York: Harrington Park Press, 1988) and David P. McWhirter and Andrew M. Mattison, *The Male Couple: How Relationships Develop* (Englewood Cliffs: NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1984). And, of course, the extensive study, *American Couples: Money, Work, Sex* by Philip Blumstein and Pepper Schwartz (New York: William Morrow, 1983) covers relationships among heterosexual married, heterosexual cohabitors, lesbians, and gay men.

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The Business and Professional Speaking Course

Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Alfred W. Owens, II
David J. Robinson

DESCRIPTION OF THE BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING COURSE

The business and professional speaking course is taught as a hands-on, practical course. At many universities it is a service course for the business school, the largest subscriber to the business and professional course; and other professional and technical programs. There are large business and professional programs acting as service courses at many two-year, technical and four-year colleges.

Since the course has been largely created at the request of faculty outside communication departments, there is a potential for conflict regarding course content and purpose. That is, who will determine the content of this introductory course? It is our opinion that the faculty in communication departments are in the best position to determine course content, assignments and overall goals and objectives of the business and professional speaking course. However, input from faculty and professionals outside the program are helpful and should not be disregarded.

Accreditatlon boards exert pressure on many technical and professional programs to have students take more and more communication courses (Blitzstein, 1980-1981; Sorenson and Pearson, 1981; Becker and Ekdom, 1980; and Mayer, 1982). We are all familiar with the studies that point out that skills in communicating are important to employers, alumni and employees. What are these oral communication skills that faculty in communication have determined to be important in the business and professional speaking course? David Robinson argued, "Let me posit a master criterion: we should strive to give our students the communication insights and skills which will facilitate survival and growth from career entry through the first ten years or so" (6). Joanne Ervin reiterates this perspective in summarizing research by Vince DiSalvo. She writes,

> "Even though DiSalvo (1980) does not use, specifically, the term everyday working communication when he reports the results of twenty-five studies designed to discover the communication needs or organizational practitioners, this concept is embedded in the following skills identified by respondents as important: conferences with boss about work, conferences with peers, persuading one person, listening, questioning, giving directions/instructions, interpreting a message from another person and routine information exchange" (3-4).

Instead of relying on isolated experiences, let's take the data to respond to this question from the contents of textbooks targeting the business and professional speaking course. A quick survey indicates that there are many content areas but only three performance areas. The content area include: communication theories and models, organizational communication, interpersonal communication, group communication, persuasion, giving information, leadership, decision making, listening, organization of information, delivery, audience analysis and adaptation, and interviewing. Even though some authors might include additional topics, the performance areas are presentational speaking (persuasive and informative), interviewing (employment and sometimes appraisal) and group communication (decision making and group presentations).

PURPOSE OF THE COURSE

Instructors in the business and professional speaking course make reasonable assurances to other faculty and their students that they work to improve the oral communication skills of the students in a variety of communication settings. Unfortunately, for most people outside the communication discipline, this usually means merely "public speaking." However, research and experience suggest other communication skills are important to people entering careers.

Students also expect the course to be a modified public speaking course with multiple opportunities to give speeches in a somewhat formal atmosphere. These expectations are influenced by interactions with their faculty, academic advisors, family and friends who are also insisting they take this business and professional course at this particular time. Because of the expectations of our clients requiring the course (faculty and administrators from other programs), communication faculty attempt to emphasize presentational skill development components of the course through course work and assignments; and give only slight attention to other forms of communication.

In attempting to represent the communication discipline, instructors explain the process of human communication to students, with specific focus on organizational and professional settings. Elements of successful communication are explained in detail so students will be able to identify them during their communication skill development exercises in class. The approach adopted in the business and professional speaking class reflects commonly-shared educational experiences that supports the conclusion that communication skill development cannot be taught *sans* their theoretical foundation. Ervin writes, "The professional community may devalue theory; just teach students how to do an interview, they say. In the other corner, you [speech teachers] recognize that skill development without a sound theoretical underpinning makes for communication hacks"(2). What is hoped in this approach is that students will remember the communication theories and skills learned in the business and professional speaking course when they enter careers. If so, this background will assist them in a variety of communication situations they will encounter in their personal and professional lives. For example, when facing a presentation to a group of fellow employees, some of the content from the business and professional course will be remembered and the presentation should be better because of it. Similarly, in interpersonal relationships with friends and family, it is hoped that some of the communication skills they have heard about in the business and professional course will assist the development and maintenance of these relationships.

Finally, instructors view it as one of their responsibilities to teach student to recognize communication variables operating in situations and respond appropriately. That is, what things influence communication regardless of situation or purpose; such as: context, topic, audience expectations, environment, occasion, etc. The ability to respond appropriately to communication situations faced in modern organizations or contemporary professions will impact their potential success in their careers. In order for students to respond appropriately to these exigencies, they must be taught to recognize them, articulate a clear description of what communication strategies to implement, and then communicate their ideas appropriately. Robinson concludes, "It is probably more vital for the new employees to learn that the communication environment of the work place is quite different from that of the home or school, and that there is a certain useful survival value in knowing what kinds of messages should be sent, received, acknowledged, or relayed to or from whom" (6).

COURSE STRUCTURE

There are many options in structuring the business and professional speaking course. It is important that the business and professional speaking course on a campus be standardized for two reasons. First, since it is often *the* required service course, faculty should be interested in having a similar course taught regardless of the section a student is enrolled. Second, since this is likely to be the only communication course for 95% or more of the students, it is important to organize course content and assignments so students get the "best-bang-for-their-buck."

Syllabus

The most important thing to do when standardizing the business and professional speaking course is to prepare a standardized syllabus. This provides a common orientation to the course, establishes standard expectations of student performance, and provides each student with common information about the course. Even more importantly, it provides each instructor (whether full-service faculty, part-time instructor or graduate teaching assistant) with a common set of goals to accomplish during the term. The syllabus should not be so detailed that there is little latitude for the individual instructor to be creative and in control of classroom instruction. Within a structured, standardized course, allowing the individual instructor latitude to achieve course objectives is important. For instance, an instructor's method for teaching the principles of communication or how to prepare and deliver a persuasive presentation may differ from another instructor's method. The important thing to keep in focus is the fact that they are accomplishing course objectives; just using differing approaches. It is important that the course director receive some assurances that the course is similar regardless of individual instructor. That is, that the goals of the course are the same in each section and as long as instructors work to accomplish the goals, the methods the instructor selects are appropriate.

Student Assignments

In standardizing the business and professional speaking course, it is important that each student complete a set of common communication performance assignments. Students in the business and professional speaking course will complete presentations, group communication activities and interviews.

The business and professional speaking course serves as a "hybrid" or "blend" course. Instructors teach group communication, interpersonal communication and public speaking. In the business and professional speaking course, there should be at least two presentations — one persuasive and one informative. Instructor emphasis should be on teaching adaptation, information gathering, organizing and presentational skills. Students should also participate in an employment interview — and in more advanced business and professional courses, an appraisal interview. Finally, there ought to be some group communication activities which demand students to arrive at a group decision and/or present a group report to the class. This is important because employees spend a great deal of their work life preparing for and participating in groups.

Course Examinations

Another way to offer a standardized version of the business and professional speaking course is to create standardized testing. This can be accomplished in one of two ways. First, there could be an examination that every student in the business and professional course takes — this could occur as the midterm and/or the course final. Questions could be put together by the entire instructional staff and the course director.

A second option for the standardized examination is to develop a standardized pool of questions from which faculty select the questions they want to include on their midterms and/or final examinations. If this option is selected, every member of the instructional staff should be expected to prepare questions for the pool and be involved in editing the final question pool.

Course Exercises

One of the more difficult things to standardize in the business and professional speaking course is the exercises to be used by the instructional staff. The difficulty comes when trying to agree on which exercises are the ones that should be common to all sections of the course. Who should decide? The basic course director? Or the entire staff?

The best approach would be to have a pool of exercises that have been nominated as "successful" by the staff. These should be shared with each member of the staff for potential use in any of the sections. It is paramount the individual instructor maintain autonomy for making instructional decisions to accomplish the goals of the business and professional course.

Course Evaluation

The only way to determine if the business and professional course is meeting the agreed upon objectives is to complete a course evaluation. Evaluation procedures come in many packages. There are student evaluations of the course where the university, department or instructor asks the student to offer an assessment of the course. Sometimes these evaluations are compared to other university courses or are just an overall evaluation of the course and its content.

A second type of evaluation would be to ask faculty in programs requiring the business and professional speaking course to evaluate the course in terms of the improved communication competence. Third, faculty in the communication department could be asked to evaluate the course through classroom visitations, interviews with faculty in other programs, interviews with students or interpretation of some objective measures of communication competence.

Perhaps one of the most enlightening kinds of course evaluation available is to invite outside evaluators to come and assess classes, interview faculty, staff and/or administration, review the texts and course assignments and offer an informed, subjective evaluation of the business and professional speaking course. These evaluators should could be communication professionals from other campuses who have courses similar to the business and professional speaking course on your campus. They could also be local communication professionals who could offer an assessment of the applicability of the interactions in the classroom and the assignments completed by students as to career relevance and application.

The point is that it is important to collect data on the "state of your business and professional speaking course." Without these data, how will it improve? If faculty go about their business believing everything is "OK" with the business and professional speaking course, then there will be no reason to change. However, if faculty collect data that there are some things to do to improve the business and professional speaking course, then the course director and instructional staff have specifics to work on to improve the course.

Teaching Methods

There are various teaching methods to present the course to the students. As in other introductory communication courses, a popular method is the lecture/discussion approach. Instructors in small autonomous sections lecture on course content, expect students to discuss the course material and grade student performances. This is a common scenario for a business and professional class. However, there are other teaching methods appropriate for the business and professional course. These would include large lecture sections with little opportunity for student-instructor interaction or student performances, making the course more of a "business and professional communication theory course;" self-motivated or self-guided learning where students learn and test on course content at their own pace; and, situations where there is a large lecture component with smaller discussion sections staffed by a group of graduate students and/or part-time faculty.

Assignment Evaluation

One of the most important activities in the business and professional class is the instructor's handling of student performances. For example, how does an instructor give students feedback about their presentation? Several question about the evaluation process come to the mind: [1] Does the instructor give immediate verbal feedback to the student in the classroom? [2] Does the instructor save comments until after all the students have completed their assignments for that class period and then offer some over-generalized, overriding comments? [3] Does the instructor rely solely on written evaluations of presentations? It is not clear that there is any particular advantages or disadvantages to any of these approaches. In fact, there are faculty who rely on a combination of all three approaches in evaluating student presentations. One of the important things to consider is to make sure the students have their evaluations on the *same day they perform their assignment.*

The questions remain the same for group and interviewing assignments. However, group discussions and presentations pose additional questions for the instructor: [1] What will be evaluated, the performance or the effort leading up to the performance? [2] How will students who do not do their fair share be handled in the classroom? [3] How will students who did more than their fair share of the work be graded? [4] Do all students in the group receive the same grade? [5] Do you ask group members to evaluate each other to influence the grades on the assignment? It is recommended in the business and professional course that instructors give the same grade to each member of the group regardless of group assignment. This better reflects how groups are evaluated in business and industry. At the same time, it is appropriate to recognize that some students work harder and more diligently than others. There are two solutions to this dilemma. First, ask students to evaluate each other at about the midpoint of their group assignment and at its completion. Hopefully what occurs is that students who are not evaluated favorably at the midway point will become more highly motivated during the second half of the project. The second option is that the group has the right *and* authority to "fire" a group member who is not contributing a fair share. This frees the group of a noncontributing group member, but gives the instructor the problem of providing motivation and work for the "fired" student to complete the class.

Grading the interview assignment poses some problems for the instructor. For example, usually one student is asked to role play the interviewer. How will that person's efforts be evaluated? The student-interviewer's performance (albeit role played) influences the performance of the student-interviewee. How much influence will be afforded this when evaluating the performance of the individual student? What happens when one student prepares for the assignment and does well and the other student fails to prepare and does poorly? Do both students receive the same grade for the assignment? If not, how will the grade be determined? Instructors tend to evaluate the two students separately, using different criteria for the interviewer and the interviewee. This approach to grading attempts to address many of the issues raised above.

The questions about performance evaluation are all related to teaching approach and teaching method. These are important questions to both students and instructors in any introductory communication course.

PROBLEMS IN THE BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL COURSE

General Problems in the Business and Professional Speaking Course

Perhaps the greatest problem in the business and professional speaking course is its duration. Instructors face the students only thirty to forty hours per term. The instructor must plan the course for the students within these time constraints. They both must use the time available for communication skill development and communication theory understanding. There is little time to waste and actually only a few things to be done to streamline the instructional efforts in the class. Time utilization becomes important to the students not only inside the class but with their work outside the class as well. Focusing the class on the development of communication skills must become the priority of *all* participants — instructor and student alike.

The second constraint in the business and professional speaking course is the size of the classes. As primarily a communication skill development course, sections should be small enough to maximize the time available for performance assignments. As a result of these communication application opportunities, a small percentage of class time is left for other things like lecturing, activities, field trips, etc. Instructors must attempt to focus class time and energies on using multiple skill application exercises. For example, students can be encouraged to develop better listening skills and critical skills as they witness other students' performances. In addition, students can be placed in groups to develop a better understanding of group dynamics while preparing for presentational speaking opportunities.

Although certainly not a complete listing of all the constraints facing instructors in the business and professional speaking course, these are the most frequent ones encountered. Each instructor or each course director must design strategies to address each of these constraints and many more that emerge in the course. The instructor will work to reduce the potential influence of each one in her or his classroom.

Course Specific Problems in the Business and Professional Speaking Course

One difficulty when teaching business and professional speech stems from helping students recognize that the business audiences they will face in the future are more than happen-stance aggregations of people. *They* have assembled for a specific time in a certain place for a known purpose. Ervin contends,

> "The difficult part about cultivating skill in everyday working communication is that, under traditional instructional methods, it is difficult to engineer a set of circumstances whereby the student receives information on the conventions governing this type of communication, has little opportunity to practice the skill under conditions where he or she can be observed, and then receives feedback on performance with an eye to enhancing future performance" (4).

Communication skills seem easier to teach when instructors consider students to be general registrants in a course. When students deliver presentations, they are students talking to students. The challenge to student audiences often seems merely to bear up under four or more presentations or other assignments today. Of course, the challenge for the instructor is the ritual of incantations about abortion, capital punishment, taxes, study tips and birth control.

The leap to business and professional communication is large. No longer can instructors be concerned with communication as a personal activity of students, but rather it must be viewed as an affair of the work place. Guidelines for producing and for evaluating such communication events emerge from the work setting and from those who populate it. In business and professional communication courses, the focus is on communication skills as they affect specific *work* audiences, not just as they relate to the students who happen to be in the business and professional classroom.

This fact creates a quandary. To go beyond the basics of delivery and organization, instructors have to illustrate the expectations of a business audience when listening to communication and the restrictions which the business particular setting or occasion imposed on the business communicator. Ervin suggests, "Without an organizational context, the delivery of work instructions, a report on work progress, a proposal, or an interview or meeting loses much of its direction and force" (5).

Thus, the business and profession course requires that students consider business communication settings, that they anticipate a business audience, and that they be able to evaluate business speaking from a business perspective. Creating this in the business and professional class creates tremendous challenge for instructors and students alike.

So what means of persuasion does a real business speaker have that a student in the business and professional classroom typically does not? There are at least three: [l] organizational roots, [2] access to people and resources, [3] access to shared organizational and member visions of the future. The common notion that a business presentation is an *event* happening within an organization might be misleading. Rather, it's important to think of a presentation as part of an ongoing organizational process, the communication actually becoming and being the organization in development.

Hence a presentation is part of the ongoing affairs of the institution doing what it does and/or being what it is. The occasion for most organizational communication is produced *by* the organization itself. This notion is important because the real speaker may see a presentation as an organizational reply to an organizational question, a corporate action following a realization of corporate conditions, or an organized inquiry into institutional activities. The real speaker, being a participant in the organization, is party to the question, to the conditions, to the activity, *and* to the history and background data. Real speakers understand the organizational significance of their presentations. The challenge to the instructor is to create this feeling for the students — not an easy task to accomplish.

The real communicator, within a business and professional setting, has access to roots, people and organizational vision and the fact that they come into play in several ways. First, the business communicator probably has a sense of how this particular organization is similar to and different from other organizations. Communicators know what efforts have led to success and what have failed in the past. They know the stated goals of the organization, as well as having access to information about the private interests of individuals within it.

Second, communicators are privy to the special "language" of the organization, its product names and numbers, its in-jokes, its mannerisms, its values. Communicators are part of the organizational community. They know whether to wear shirt-sleeves, whether a pastel shirt and jacket or whether a dress is the rule. They know the rituals, the influential decision makers, the right things to say and much more about the organization because of their membership. Giving this sense of organizational reality to students in the business and professional class is a challenge for the instructor.

Third, communicators in organizations know that communication about a particular issue probably has already taken place in advance and thus are in a position to find out much of what it was and that more will take place after the presentation. So, while a presentation might be defined within a particular time and place, the communication which relates to the issues at hand extends both before and after it. In addition, the audience already has a base level of information about the speech because they have organizational roots too. Giving students the sense of this historic information poses a challenge to students and instructor. The challenge for the instructor is to generate this information; the challenge for the student is to assimilate the information provided.

And fourth, a real communicator has an organizational reputation to consider, one which might be used constructively to enhance the message or which might have to be overcome. The organizational communicator has many opportunities to affect messages, to hone communication skills, and to practice public communication. Rarely does an employee have to give a life-or-death speech the first time called upon to deliver a presentation. There are many situations where successful communication in the business and professional setting can and does influence the success of the communicator.

FUTURE OF THE BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEECH COURSE

The future of the business and professional course appears bright. There continues to be opportunities for growth because accreditation boards continue to pressure faculty in technical and professional programs to place communication courses in curricula of college programs across the country. The diversity of textbooks being published by major publishers indicates their view that the business and professional speaking textbook market is large enough to sustain their investments.

The biggest problem facing the business and professional course in the future is that there is little agreement as to what the course ought to be. Should the course be an outgrowth of organizational communication theory? If so, how much? Should be course be solely presentational speaking? Should students be expected to participate in groups and one-to-one communication situations?

A related problem facing the business and professional course is the diverse audiences at two-year colleges, technical programs and four year colleges and universities. How is the course to address these diverse students? Should there be separate instructional approaches at these different types of institutions? Should there be a common theme that holds all of these business and professional speaking courses together? The answers to these questions and other issues are not easy; but they will be an ongoing concern in the future of the business and professional speaking course.

As one of the newest introductory communication courses, course directors of the business and professional course can learn a great deal from the growth and decline of interest in other introductory communication courses over time. Popularity in introductory courses appears cyclical. At times, public speaking is the most popular introductory communication course, the hybrid or blend course is growing in popularity, and, at one time, the interpersonal communication course was much more popular than it is currently.

Because there is a solid enrollment foundation for the business and professional speaking course in technical and professional programs, there is tremendous opportunity to build interest and enrollments in other academic programs in the future. How faculty and administrators interested in the business and professional course address this real *and* potential for growth will be interesting to participate in and watch.

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The Introductory Communication Course: Results of a National Survey

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Data for this survey were gathered from a national sample of institutions of higher education by means of a questionnaire mailed in November of 1987. The questionnaire and a cover letter signed by the president of the Association for Communication Administration were sent to all 2-year colleges and all 4-year and graduate institutions which have an affiliation with the Speech Communication Association or the Association for Communication Administration. In each case they were addressed to the executive officer of the relevant communication department and requested data relevant to the 1987-88 academic year.

The instrument used in this survey is a revision of the initial questionnaire used in a 1985 survey of communication departments. We received responses from 421 institutions, an increase from the 373 we received on the earlier survey. These responses were distributed over four types of institutions: 76 from two-year colleges; 101 from four-year colleges without master's degrees in many fields; 139 from four-year colleges offering master's degrees in many fields; 139 from four-year colleges offering PhD degrees in many fields. The number of responses in each category are sufficient to allow reasonable comparisons and generalizations from the data.

RESULTS

The introductory communication course is required by at least some noncommunication majors in a large percentage of the reporting institutions. As Table 1 shows, it seems to be a more widespread requirement in institutions which do not offer the PhD degree. Even in those institutions, however, over seventy percent of the universities surveyed require it for some of their students. These data confirm earlier arguments that the introductory course, ". . . is required by a significant number of other departments and colleges for graduation," (Trank 1990, 403).

Table 1
Is the Introductory Course Required for Students in Other Units?

# of Students	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD %
Virtually all	32.9	36.5	47.5	17.8
75%	22.4	1.0	10.1	7.5
50%	27.6	13.5	13.1	13.1
25%	10.5	20.8	15.2	33.6
Not required	3.9	28.1	13.1	28.0

Although not the issue it was a decade ago, speech communication faculty and administrators continue to be interested in the nature of the introductory course. We have seen the major thrust of the basic course swing toward interpersonal, blend, and back toward a public speaking approach, which increased by almost 5% over the last three years. As

Table 2 shows, the public speaking approach enjoys considerable popularity in our total response.

The public speaking approach to the introductory communication course has a considerable share of the market across all types of institutions. The blend or combination course is a popular option across all types of institutions and is reported as the most popular approach in the MA granting institutions. The interpersonal course is the major thrust in just 12% of the 2-year institutions and has lost considerable ground as a way of providing the introductory course in all institutions. It appears that the blend (hybrid) or combination course has lost considerable ground to the public speaking approach in the past three years.

Table 2
Nature of the Introductory
Oral Communication Course

Major Thrust	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD
Blend/Combination	27.4	28.6	39.6	22.0
Public Speaking	35.6	51.0	38.6	35.6
Choice of Courses	8.2	3.1	5.0	5.9
Interpersonal	12.3	5.1	6.9	7.6
Speech & Writing	2.7	2.0	1.0	2.5
Other	13.7	10.2	8.9	25.4

Important to the nature of the introductory course is the content, or basic units of instruction. Gibson, Hanna and Huddleston asked course directors in an earlier national survey, ". . . to indicate the ten topics which received the greatest amount of time in their course" (286). Informative speaking was the top topic in both the public speaking and combination orientations, while listening was the most important topic listed by respondents in the interpersonal orientation. The second most important topic (for both the combination and interpersonal orientations) was interpersonal skills, while persuasive speaking was second for the public speaking basic course respondents (Gibson, Hanna and Huddleston, 287).

The total enrollment in introductory courses remains healthy across all types of institutions. As Table 3 shows, the mean number of students ranges from 303 in four-year institutions to 1,265 in PhD granting institutions. Over forty percent of the PhD institutions have over 1,000 students enrolled in the introductory course.

Table 3
Total Enrollment in the Introductory Course

Number	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD %
0-19	1.4	1.1	1.1	0.0
20-200	29.6	56.8	10.0	16.0
201-400	21.1	20.0	24.5	14.0
401-600	14.1	9.5	14.4	11.0
601-1000	19.7	7.3	20.0	17.0
1001-2000	14.1	5.3	18.9	23.0
2001-3000			7.8	11.0
3001-6530			3.3	8.0
Mean # of Students	558.789	303.032	959.122	1264.980

This indicates that we enjoy large enrollments in our introductory communication course, and, as Table 4 demonstrates, that enrollment has been increasing over the past three years. The largest percentage increase in enrollment has been in the two-year community colleges.

Table 4
Change in Introductory Course Enrollment
(Compared to 3 Years Ago)

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
Change	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Decreased	4	5.6	5	5.3	10	10.9	5	4.8
Stayed Same	26	36.1	46	48.4	39	42.4	55	52.9
Increased	42	58.3	44	46.3	43	46.7	44	42.3
(Missing)	4	5.3	6	5.9	13	12.4	35	25.2

Enrollment in the introductory communication course is increasing dramatically across all types of institutions. Over forty percent of the responding institutions reported that their enrollments had increased from three years ago. Only a very few indicated that enrollments had decreased over the past three years.

Since most respondents indicated they have more than 200 students in their basic course (Table 3), multiple sections are necessary across all types of institutions. Many institutions, then, need someone to coordinate basic course sections so that some standard of equality and equivalence can be achieved across sections. Multiple sections present problems not necessarily found in other instructional situations. The degree of consistency of instructional practices and content across sections is a critical issue for the course director. Students in Section 10 have the right to expect that the instruction they receive (their assignments and classroom activities, the goals and objectives, and the content) is very similar to that which the students in Section 356 receive. Equally important, the students want to be assured that grades are distributed fairly and equally across sections. In addition to the sections being equivalent, the course director is also frequently responsible for instruction of those individuals who teach the introductory course (Trank 1990, 406-408).

Past surveys have perpetuated the myth that most introductory course sections are taught by graduate teaching assistants. Our earlier survey indicated that ". . . far fewer graduate assistants are teaching the basic course than tenured faculty, untenured full-time faculty, or even part-time instructors," (Trank 1986). Our current survey re-confirms those findings. As Table 5 shows, the mean number of graduate students teaching the basic course is smaller than the combined means of the other categories in all types of institutions. Other than in the PhD granting institutions, fewer graduate teaching assistants are teaching the basic course than any other category of faculty.

The mean number of full or associate professors teaching in the introductory course increased rather dramatically in both the MA and the PhD granting institutions from three years ago. The overall mean number of instructors teaching the introductory course increased, corresponding to the increase in the number of students in introductory courses.

Table 5
Mean Number and Type of Instructors for Introductory Course

Type of Instructor	CC	4 yr	MA	PhD
Full/Assoc Prof	0.871	1.521	2.529	2.529
Asst Prof/Full Instr	1.942	1.740	2.379	2.644
Part-time Instr	1.873	1.677	3.276	2.175
Graduate TA	- - -	0.021	1.506	6.961
Undergrad Asst	- - -	0.094	0.035	0.760

In addition to the introductory communication course, we were interested in determining which courses departments were identifying as introductory courses in broadcasting and film, theatre, and speech pathology and audiology. As Tables 6, 7, and 8 indicate, most departments are able to identify a specific course which meets those requirements in broadcasting and film and in theatre, but not in speech pathology and audiology. The most common orientation for the introductory course in broadcasting and film or mass communication could be characterized as a general survey course. A theory oriented characterization was the next most frequently mentioned approach in Table 6. About one-third of the departments surveyed noted they did not have an introductory course in broadcasting and film or mass communication.

Nearly 40% of the departments responding do not have an introductory course in theatre. Of those who do offer such a course, most stated it had a production orientation. No introductory course in speech pathology or audiology is offered in 82% of the departments surveyed. Of those who do offer such a course, most stated it had a survey orientation and several noted a voice science emphasis.

Table 6
Nature of the Introductory Course in Broadcasting/Film or Mass Communication

Percentages for Departments With this Introductory Course				
Major Thrust	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD %
General survey	30.0	54.0	48.6	37.7
Theory	15.0	17.6	20.1	23.4
Production	20.0	18.9	10.0	5.1
Radio/TV speech	5.0	- - -	5.7	1.2
Media criticism	2.6	- - -	- - -	5.1
Other	27.5	9.4	15.7	27.3
Percentage of All Departments Without this Introductory Course				
No introductory course in B/F	45.9	23.7	24.7	35.8

Table 7
Nature of the Introductory Course in Theatre

Percentages for Departments With this Basic Course				
Major Thrust	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD%
Production	21.8	24.3	37.6	20.0
Criticism	3.6	21.2	8.9	10.1
History	9.2	15.1	16.1	8.1
Acting	25.3	15.1	7.2	5.9
Other	40.0	24.3	28.6	56.0
Percentage of All Departments Without this Introductory Course				
No introductory course in Theatre	25.7	33.3	41.7	59.3

Table 8
Nature of the Introductory Course in Speech Pathology and Audiology

Percentages for Departments With this Introductory Course				
Major Thrust	CC %	4 yr %	MA %	PhD %
Survey	17.1	44.5	58.4	42.9
Voice Science	32.9	38.7	12.4	47.8
Other	50.0	16.8	29.2	9.8
Percentage of All Departments Without this Introductory Course				
No introductory course in SP/Audiology	91.8	80.9	73.3	81.6

Although the introductory course generates the greatest number of enrollments for many departments, other courses are frequently offered to meet the general education requirements of the institution. As Table 9 shows, a considerable number of communication departments offer courses which meet the requirements in the social sciences and humanities.

Table 9
Does the department offer courses other than oral communication to fulfill general education requirements?

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
No	24	32.0	33	32.7	22	21.8	28	22.2
Yes, Social Science	2	2.7	4	4.0	4	4.0	15	11.9
Yes, Humanities	26	48.0	32	31.7	35	34.7	35	27.8
Yes, Soc Sci & Hum	5	6.7	11	10.9	11	10.9	31	24.6
Other	8	10.7	21	20.8	29	28.7	17	13.5

If the predictions that over fifty percent of the current college and university professors will retire by 2010 are correct, we obviously need to be concerned with their replacement. It is probable that the competition for the best graduate students will become even more intense in the next decade. One of the factors potential graduate students consider when selecting a department is the stipend they receive as a teaching assistant. As Table 10 shows, there is a wide range across both MA and PhD granting institutions. While a few departments are providing stipends close to $10,000, the majority of both the MA and PhD granting institutions are providing support in the $4,000 to $7,000 range. The mean stipend was $5,627 for MA and $6,226 for PhD candidates.

Table 10
Stipend Amount for $^1/_2$ Time TAs or RAs

	MA		PhD	
$ Amount	#	%	#	%
0	2	4.5	2	4.5
1-3000	1	2.3	0	0.0
3001-4000	4	9.1	0	0.0
4001-5000	10	22.7	8	18.2
5001-6000	11	25.0	14	31.8
6001-7000	6	13.7	9	20.5
7001-8000	5	11.3	4	9.1
8001-9000	2	4.6	2	4.5
9001-1000	3	6.8	5	11.4
Mean	$5626.773		$6225.909	

In addition to the stipend for teaching, nearly all institutions provide some sort of tuition waiver for their graduate teaching assistants. As Table 11 shows, the large majority of both types of institutions provide full tuition waivers. Only 6.8% of the responding departments stated they did not offer a tuition waiver for teaching assistants. About 69% of the departments offer a full tuition waiver and about 19% offer a waiver of the out-of-state portion of tuition for graduate assistants.

Our survey also examined issues beyond the introductory course. Some are obviously relevant to those of us who teach or direct the basic course. For example, one of the most frequent complaints voiced by colleagues, regardless of the type of institutional affiliation, is the lack of sufficient support for travel to professional meetings and conferences. As Tables 12 and 13 illustrate, there is a wide range of support across institutions.

Table 11
Tuition Waiver for TAs

	MA		PhD	
Amount	#	%	#	%
Full	30	66.7	31	70.5
Out of State	9	20.0	8	17.8
Partial	3	6.7	2	4.5
None	3	6.7	3	6.8

Table 12
Average Travel Allocation for Each Faculty Member with Papers (Per Year)

Travel Funds	CC	4 yr	MA	PhD
Range	$0-800	$0-2000	$0-1500	$0-9998
Mean	$100.17	$370.84	$396.22	$591.33
Median	$50.00	$300.00	$350.00	$450.00

(Number and Percentage of those who stated their institution does not award travel funds for faculty members with papers)

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
No funds	27	47.4	12	15.6	10	11.1	5	3.6
(Missing)	19	25.0	24	23.8	15	14.3	13	9.4

Table 13
Average Travel Allocation for Each Faculty Member Without Papers (per year)

Travel Funds	CC	4 yr	MA	PhD
Range	$0-1000	$0-1000	$0-2500	$0-900
Mean	$203.60	$249.10	$286.26	$166.98
Median	$150.00	$220.00	$200.00	$125.00

(Number and Percentage of those who stated their institution does not award travel funds for faculty members without papers)

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
No funds	10	17.5	12	14.5	21	23.1	58	46.0
(Missing)	19	25.0	18	17.8	14	13.3	13	9.4

With the exception of the community colleges, faculty are more likely to receive travel support and a greater amount of support if they are presenting papers. Over half of the PhD granting institutions will provide travel support only for faculty who present papers.

The data presented on the introductory course indicates that most departments are either stable or growing. Another indicator of departmental health is the growth of faculty. As Table 14 shows, nearly all departments surveyed report that they expect to maintain their current level or increase the size of the faculty in the next three years. Remarkably, it seems to us, a fairly sizable majority of the respondents indicated that the size of their faculty will increase in the next three years. Nearly 40% of the PhD institutions reported that they plan to increase by two or more faculty, while almost as many MA granting institutions were this optimistic.

Table 14
Expectations for Change in Size of Faculty in the Next 3 Years

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
Change	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Decrease by 3 or more	0	0.0	2	2.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Decrease by 2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Decrease by 1	2	2.6	2	2.0	3	2.9	2	1.4
Remain the same	39	51.3	40	39.6	28	26.9	36	25.9
Increase by 1	28	36.8	44	43.6	33	31.7	46	33.1
Increase by 2	6	7.9	11	10.9	34	32.7	29	20.9
Increase by 3 or more	1	1.3	2	2.0	6	5.8	26	18.7

The shift in the focus of our discipline from its primarily speech focus to the present more inclusive nature can be seen in the departmental titles that institutions employ. Among 4 year MA and PhD granting institutions, Communication Studies (or Arts, or Arts and Sciences) was the most common name reported by respondents. The only type of institution to frequently use the title Speech, Speech and Dramatic Art or Theatre Arts was the two-year community college.

Another important aspect of the nature of departments is the kind of major area(s) in communication departments. As indicated by Table 15, the two major areas popular across all types of institutions are theatre and broadcasting. Group/ Organizational, Interpersonal, Communication Education and Journalism are popular in 4 year, MA and PhD granting institutions, though not as important in community colleges.

Table 15
Major Areas Contained in the Department

	CC		4 yr		MA		PhD	
Area	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Interpersonal Communication	6	7.9	15	14.9	28	26.7	48	35.0
Group and/or Organizational	2	2.6	18	17.8	26	24.8	52	38.0
Persuasion/ Argumentation	2	2.6	9	8.9	4	3.8	30	21.9
Theatre	26	34.2	4	47.5	48	45.7	47	34.3
Broadcasting	12	15.8	40	39.6	48	45.7	53	38.7
Oral Interp.	2	2.6	5	5.0	4	3.8	16	11.7
Rhetorical Theory History/Criticism	0	0.0	12	11.9	17	16.2	39	28.5
Communication Ed.	4	5.3	22	21.8	27	25.7	32	23.4
Journalism	6	7.9	21	20.8	37	35.2	31	22.6
Film	3	3.9	6	5.9	9	8.6	36	26.3
Speech Pathology	2	2.6	9	8.9	15	14.3	17	12.4
Voice Science	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	2.9
No Special Emphasis Possible	39	51.3	19	18.8	7	6.7	9	6.6
Other	14	18.4	53	52.5	59	56.2	57	41.6

Finally, to leave you with a sweet (or bitter) feeling, we report the mean and median salaries for 1987-88. Salaries are highest for junior and non-tenured faculty at the community college level and highest for senior faculty at the PhD granting institutions.

Table 16
Mean and (Median) Faculty Salaries

	CC	4 yr	MA	PhD
Full	32,500 (30,000)	34,529 (35,000)	39,029 (38,000)	43,954 (45,000)
Associate	30,727 (30,000)	29,752 (30,000)	32,550 (31,500)	34,080 (34,000)
Assistant	27,500 (26,00)	23,682 (24,000)	26,619 (26,000)	26,415 (26,350)
Instructor	27,875 (27,000)	19,740 (20,000)	21,380 (21,000)	22,697 (22,000)
Non-tenure	25,857 (23,000)	22,516 (23,000)	24,782 (21,000)	23,457 (23,750)
Other	23,375 (21,500)	17,000 (17,000)	16,033 (18,000)	16,900 (23,300)

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Logic and Emotion, Persuasion and Argumentation: "Good Reasons" as an Educational Synthesis

Warren Sandmann

The words of 17th century philosopher John Locke provide an appropriate starting point for a discussion on the art of persuasion:

> If we would speak of things as they are, we must allow that all the art of rhetoric, besides order and clearness; all the artificial and figurative application of words eloquence hath invented, are for nothing else but to insinuate wrong ideas, move the passions, and thereby mislead the judgment . . . and therefore, however laudable or allowable oratory may render them in harangues and popular addresses, they are certainly, in all discourses that pretend to inform or instruct, wholly to be avoided . . . (Simons, 99).

The art of persuasion neither demands nor receives favorable attention from the general public today (Simons, 101). It receives little better, at times, from those scholars who study rhetoric (Simons, 114). Persuasion is usually associated with purely pejorative terms: propaganda, indoctrination and brainwashing. The practice of persuasion is in the hands of Madison Avenue and used car dealers. Persuasion is what people use when the "truth" is unavailable or contrary to their position (Simons, 1986). Opposed to persuasion, in this admittedly simple dialectic, is argumentation. Persuasion is emotional; argumentation is logical. Persuasion appeals to the base motives of people; argumentation appeals to reason. While this is a simple breakdown of two complex acts, it is also the manner in which persuasion and argumentation are generally viewed by the public, and is also too often the manner in which these communicative approaches are taught. This is also a misguided and inappropriate dichotomy. It is my contention that, for discourse aimed at securing conviction, there is no useful distinction between argumentation and persuasion. Discourse which aims at influencing the actions or attitudes of others is and should be considered argumentation and persuasion. To distinguish between persuasion and argumentation as differing approaches to influencing actions and/or attitudes is to continue to divide emotional appeals from logical proofs.

The purpose of this essay is three-fold. First, I will summarize the history and development of persuasion and rhetoric in the classical and renaissance world, demonstrating the manner in which argumentation, or conviction by means of logical proof, and persuasion, or conviction by means of a unified appeal to emotions and reasons became separated. Second, I will look at the manner in which persuasion and argumentation are presented educationally today by analyzing four of the most popular public speaking texts. Finally, I will argue that there is a more effective method for teaching the combined principles of argumentation and persuasion, as can be seen in the works of Karl Wallace, Walter Fisher and Douglas Hesse, and as seen in the argumentation texts of Barbara Warnick and Edward Inch and also Josina Makau.

There are three additional objectives for this research. First, to convince instructors of the introductory communication course and authors of texts for the introductory course, that the dichotomy between persuasion and argumentation has a misinterpreted historical background. Secondly, that instructing our students that conviction by appeals to emotion and conviction by logical proofs are two separate processes is fallacious. Finally, I wish to show that presentation of the principles of argumentation and persuasion, "rhetorical argumentation" (Warnick and Inch, 1989), based on the principle of "good reasons" is necessary in order to provide our students with the ability to effectively and ethically use and critique communication in the modern world.

I define persuasion as it was defined by Aristotle and refined by Isocrates, Cicero and Quintilian in the classical world; that is, as conviction through the use of both emotional appeals and appeals to reason. The inclusion of reason is a necessary element of persuasion. When I use the term "argumentation," I am defining it as conviction through the use of appeals solely to reason. Though this once again seems a too simplistic analysis of two complex processes, I intend to show that the manner in which persuasion and argumentation have been presented pedagogically leads to the dichotomy of argumentation as logic and persuasion as emotion, and that this dichotomy in turn offers a skewed view of the role of discourse in securing conviction. This distinction is seen easily in Fisher's 1987 discussion of the dichotomy between *logos* and *mythos*. *Logos,* in Fisher's terminology, corresponds to the definition of argumentation as conviction solely by appeals to reason. *Logos,* then, is the backbone of the "rational-world paradigm" (61-73). *Mythos,* then, corresponds to the combination of appeals to reason and appeals to emotion; or, in other words, persuasion as I have defined it. It is "rhetorical argumentation" (Warnick and Inch, 1989), argumentation that takes into consideration the notion that human beings are more than analyzers of fact and evidence, that they take emotional appeals and ethical credibility into consideration when they reason.

In the classical world which gave birth to rhetoric, there were three major approaches (Clark, 1957): The moral philosophical view of Plato; the technical philosophical view of Aristotle; and the practical view of Isocrates, Cicero and Quintilian. (In these three views it is possible to see the coming split between the logical and "truthful" use of rhetoric and the practical, illogical and deceitful use of persuasion.) Plato emphasized absolute truth, a truth that was achievable to exceptional men through the strenuous practice of dialectic. Rhetoric, for Plato, was at first a pale and unworthy imitation of the dialectic, but was later seen as of some possible use to the honorable man (Plato, 1987 & 1988). Aristotle took a somewhat different view of rhetoric. Instead of disputing the use of rhetoric or even the existence of an art of rhetoric, he classified it. Aristotle advanced and expanded upon the use of rhetoric proposed by Plato in *Phaedrus*. To Aristotle, rhetoric should be used to expound upon the truth, because even though what is "true" and "just" are naturally more agreeable to a listener than their opposites, they can always benefit from a little help (Aristotle, 11).

Aristotle advanced Plato's theory of rhetoric, but it was still a theory. It took Isocrates to take theory and make it a practice. (In discussing Isocrates, along with Plato and Aristotle, it is important to remember that a handbook of rhetoric has been developed prior to these thinkers: Corax of Sicily is credited with that invention.) In his many writings on the subject of rhetoric, or what he called the "art of discourse" (Clark, 52), Isocrates took rhetoric into the worlds of politics and literature, into the world of everyday people. He taught the most famous orators, historians, writers and critics of his day — he showed the practical use of persuasion as well as the need to be wary of the possible abuses of this power. As Clark puts it:

> In Greece in the fourth century B.C. there was a three-cornered quarrel among the leading teachers concerning what it takes to make a successful speaker. From this quarrel Isocrates . . . came out triumphant. More than any other Greek rhetorician he left his stamp on subsequent Greek and Roman educational theory and practice (5-6).

One area where Isocrates and his view of rhetoric has a major influence was in the early Roman rhetoricians, most notably Cicero. Cicero, in his publications *De Oratore* and

Partitiones Oratoriae, melds the classification of rhetoric that Aristotle accomplished with the method of educating the orator that Isocrates proposed. *Partitiones Oratoriae,* in particular, reads like a summary of Aristotle's *Art of Rhetoric.* In *De Oratore,* Cicero provides a concise summary of the tow major divisions of rhetoric: The Platonic-Aristotelian view propounded by the character of Crassus and the more practical (albeit watered-down) view of Isocrates as embodied in the character of Antonius. Cicero then argues for the use of philosophy (Plato) by the trained rhetorician (Isocrates) to help aim humanity toward happiness (Aristotle).

It is in this quick and brief summary of classical rhetorical development that we see the beginnings of a split in rhetoric, the split between logic and emotion, between argumentation and persuasion, a split that unfortunately still exists. An exploration of this split begins with a closer (but still brief) look at Aristotle's *Art of Rhetoric,* continues with a look at the split widening in Cicero's *De Oratore,* and concludes by examining the current nature of this split today.

The split between logic and emotion begins with Aristotle; not through any apparent intention on his part, but simply because of his tendency to classify all areas of argument. Aristotle popularized the division of rhetorical proof into three types: Logos, Ethos, and Pathos. There was no problem with that, since a close reading of Aristotle reveals the need to combine all three elements in order to construct an effective argument (Grimaldi, 1952; Fortenbaugh, 1970; and Rowland and Womack, 1985). The problem comes through later misreadings of Aristotle's theory, misreadings that separate, rather than classify, emotional appeals (pathos and ethos) and logical appeals (logos).

This separation of emotion and logic is seen in the writings of Hermagoras, the first major teacher and rhetorical theorist after Isocrates (Kennedy, 303-321). Hermagoras neglected the use of either ethical or emotional appeals as part of his theory of rhetoric. Though rhetoric was still aimed at persuading, the persuasion was to take place simply by using logical argument, by informing the audience. This separation of emotion and logic continued in this rhetorical era (falling between Isocrates and Cicero, circa late third to early first century B.C.). Theoreticians such as Theophrastus and Demetrius (Kennedy, 273-290; Grube, 1959) took rhetoric and persuasion to the other side of the division by concentrating their writings and teachings on style, on methods of appealing to the audience through technique rather than through the truth of the logical arguments. The schism between logic and emotion was widening.

In the first century B.C., the Romans attempted to close the gap between logic and emotion. Cicero's *De Oratore* provided, in the persons of both Antonius and Crassus, a view of rhetoric encompassing both logic and emotion. Though differing in how much outside learning an orator must possess (Antonius believed a quick dip in a shallow pool of outside knowledge would suffice, while Crassus held that the true orator would be more akin to the philosopher-orator that Plato idealized, one who remained in the sea of learning), both Antonius and Crassus realized the need to interweave emotion and logic. As Antonius put it:

> . . . for purposes of persuasion the art of speaking relies wholly upon three things: the proof of our allegations, the winning of our hearer's favour, and the rousing of their feelings to whatever impulse our case may require (Cicero, Book II of *De Oratore*, 281).

Antonius used persuasion to mean both logical proofs and emotional appeals. More importantly, he went on to call for the use of emotional appeals within the logical proofs themselves.

> And because . . . there are three methods of bringing people to hold our opinion, instruction or persuasion or appeal to their emotions, one of these three methods we must openly

> display . . . whereas the two remaining methods should be interfused throughout the whole of the structure of our speeches like the blood in our bodies (435).

Following Cicero, Quintilian also argued for the effective use of persuasion and emotion in oration. Quintilian argued more for the use of emotion in specific parts of the speech, the exordium and peroratio especially, but he acknowledged the need for effective use of emotion in the entire oration. As Kennedy wrote in his book, *Quintilian,* "Emotion should not be forgotten in any part of the speech in Quintilian's view, but it figures especially in two parts: The exordium, where the emotional factors are first intimated, and the peroration, where they are fully developed" (73).

It is also important to note that the teachings and writings of Cicero and Quintilian, in addition to emphasizing the interdependence of emotion and logic, also widened the scope of rhetoric to include more than just the art of persuasion. Rhetoric became the mainstay of the complete liberal arts education, and in the work of Cicero and Quintilian, the moral nature of rhetoric and the rhetor, as conceived by Isocrates in classical Greece, received renewed attention (Golden, Berquist and Coleman, 53). The interdependence of emotion and logic, and the role of rhetoric as more than just the art of persuasion, remained the province of rhetoric from the time of Quintilian through the Middle Ages and up to the time of seventeenth century. Golden, Berquist and Coleman state,

> It seems evident that despite innovations which occasionally altered its scope or emphasis, rhetoric at the close of the sixteenth century was still primarily an integral part of an old anc cherished system dating back to Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian (53).

In the early seventeenth century, rhetoric began a renaissance of its own, a renaissance that carried and reached its zenith in the eighteenth century with the writings and teachings of George Campbell and Richard Whately. Combining the classical tradition from Plato to Cicero with the new thinking of Locke and others, most notably the idea of "faculty psychology" (Campbell, 93), Campbell proposed a four-step approach to persuasion. He wrote, a message must first be understood (faculty of understanding), then be attended to and remembered (faculty of imagination), and finally felt (faculty of passion) in order to move the will. In proposing the need for the passions to be excited in order to persuade effectively, Campbell did not state that the passions were more important than reason, which was the mover of the will. Instead, the passions "are her [reason] handmaids, by whose ministry she is enabled to usher truth into the heart, and procure it there a favourable reception" (101).

Campbell emphasized the important of emotion, of emotional appeals in the process of persuasion. He emphasized again the interdependency of logical appeals (reason) and emotional appeals (passions). But what was also seen in the writings of Campbell was a hierarchy. The movement of the will was accomplished with the use of emotional appeals as servants to reason. The split made possible by Aristotle's classification of Logos, Ethos, and Pathos remained. As can be seen by John Locke's essay above, even when the study of rhetoric was once again popular, the emotional appeal of rhetoric was downplayed in favor of the logical certainty of argument.

The interweaving of emotion and logic that Aristotle proposed can be seen in Campbell's four-step method of conviction. It is also possible to see, in the emergence of rationalism that also occurred in the eighteenth century, a new eminence for reason at the expense of emotion. Locke's comments show some of this distrust of emotion. Although Locke was aware of the need for emotional appeals to buttress rational appeals, he was wary of them. Emotional appeals, Locke believed, created what he called "uneasiness" in people, and led people to change their views in order to rid themselves of their uneasiness. (The relationship between Locke's idea of "uneasiness" and the modern psychological theory of cognitive dissonance is readily apparent.) The very term that Locke used to describe the effect of emotion on people tells much about his opinion toward emotional appeal (Golden, Berquist and Coleman, 84).

This historical review of the development of rhetorical theory, of the role of both emotion and logic in discourse designed to convince, shows that in the original rhetorical theory of Aristotle, as adopted and adapted by Cicero and Quintilian, the interdependence of emotion and logic to secure conviction was both acknowledged and emphasized. Campbell's four-step process for conviction, while still acknowledging the role of emotion in conviction, helped pave the way for the further separation of logic and emotion. What is the status of persuasion today? How is it being taught and presented, at least in the introductory communications classes, classes beyond which many of our students never advance? An analysis of four of the more popular introductory public speaking texts can help answer the above question. The texts to be examined are *Public Speaking* (Osborn and Osborn, 1988); *The Art of Public Speaking* (Lucas, 1983); *The Challenge of Effective Speaking* (Verderber, 1982); and *Principles of Speech Communication* (Gronbeck, Ehninger and Monroe, 1988).

In the textbook *Public Speaking* by Osborn and Osborn, one chapter is devoted to persuasive speaking. A look at the four major approaches to speech design advocated by the text shows that the division between logic and emotion remains prevalent. The first design offered for a persuasive speech is the problem-solution design. As the text has it, "The problem-solution design first convinces listeners that they have a problem, then shows them how to deal with it" (359). The speaker is given the task of proving the problem exists and then proving that his or her solution will solve the problem, There is no mention of the need for any appeals to emotion, or of any use of emotion whatsoever. (There are obvious reasons for the popularity of the problem-solution design. It is far easier to teach students how to use evidence to state and support a problem, and then simply solve the problem, than to try to teach them how to use the language to do so persuasively as well.) It may be argued that specific mention of the role of emotion is not mentioned because it is assumed that emotional appeals will play a part in any successful presentation. That is precisely the problem. The lack of a specific reminder that emotion does and should play a role leads to an exclusion of emotion, with a "successful" speech being one that demonstrates the existence of a problem through evidence, and then shows deductively how the solution solves the problem. The problem, of course, is that simply showing your solution works is no guarantee that it will be adopted by your audience.

A second approach, design by analogy, allows for emotion in attempting to relate the speaker's proposal with an already popular proposal, but it does not call for the use of any type of emotional appeals to the audience within the argument. A third approach, the motivated sequence, does call for the use of emotional appeals, but limits the use of appeals to the first step, "Arousing attention," and the fifth and last step, "Calling for action." The fourth approach, "Refutative design," also calls for more of a logical approach, instructing the speaker to attack the opposition by pointing out inconsistencies in the argument. With the exception of the motivated sequence approach, these approaches ignore or limit the use of emotion in persuasion. They call instead for logical, argumentative approaches to persuasion.

The section on persuasive speaking in the Lucas text is quite similar to the section in the Osborn and Osborn text. The section on speaking to persuade divides persuasive speaking into questions of fact, value and policy, addresses the need for audience adaptation in persuasive speaking, and presents techniques for composing the persuasive speech, including the use of evidence and reasoning, and appeals to emotion. As was seen in the Osborn and Osborn text, though the use of emotional appeals in persuasion is called for, the interdependence of emotion and logic, the necessity for emotion in all persuasive arguments, even those based on reason, is not stressed.

Principles of Speech Communication (Gronbeck, Ehninger and Monroe) does a much more effective job of showing the interdependence of emotion and reason in the art of persuasion, mainly through its detailed presentation of the motivated sequence of persuasion, the need for appealing to the motives of the audience. Gronbeck *et al.* write of the use of motivational appeals that "speakers can use to arouse in their listeners a particular feeling, emotion or desire in an attempt to stimulate one or more of the primary motive needs" (1984, 265). The motivated sequence design of persuasion goes a long way toward the inclusion of emotion in a persuasive argument. In some instances, it goes a bit too far in that the motivated sequence design, while allowing for the inclusion of reason in its design, places more emphasis on motive, on what could be termed the psychological basis of persuasion.

As in the two previous texts, this text provides a separate section on argumentation, or on speaking that is designed to convince more on logical means than on appeals to emotion. "Arguers commit themselves to rationality, to a willingness to proceed logically" (1984, 267). This is where the problems lie. A separate section on argumentation teaches students that there is a fundamental difference between discourse that persuades and discourse that attains conviction by means of logical proof.

The Verderber text, similar to the Lucas and Osborn and Osborn text, devotes a special section to persuasion and persuasive speaking. And like those two, it repeats the call for logical (arguments) and emotional appeals. Verderber does, however, see the two types of appeals as interdependent:

> I like to look at logic and emotion as inseparable elements within an argument. Thus, we should not look for some additional material that will arouse fear or pity or joy or anger or guilt or love — we should look for a good, logical, supportable argument that will, *if properly phrased* (author's italics), arouse rear or pity or joy or anger or guilt or love (249).

These four approaches to the presentation of persuasion in the basic communication course, with the exception of the Verderber text, present a conventional view of the dichotomy between persuasion and argumentation. While none of the texts forbid the mixture of these two approaches to discourse, simply by providing for separate sections on the two leads students — and teachers — to the conclusion that there is a fundamental difference between argumentation and persuasion. So just what is the problem with promoting a logical approach to persuasion? Of ignoring the emotional aspect? As can be seen in this gloss of the public speaking texts, one of the major problems lies in the logical or quasi-logical format or argumentation, wherein the process determines the success of the argument. If a speaker presents a logically sound argument, she or he has done her or his job. This emphasis on logical form obscures the content and the context. Persuasion, therefore, is left with the job of using the content and the context to secure the conviction of the audience, not just its appreciation of a logically well-constructed argument.

Cicero, speaking through the persona of Antonius, described another problem:

> Now nothing in oratory . . . is more important than to win for the orator the favour of his hearer, and to have the latter so affected as to be swayed by something resembling a mental impulse or emotion, rather than by judgment or deliberation. For men decide far more problems by hate, or love, or lust, or rage, or sorrow, or joy, or hope, or fear, or illusion, or some other inward emotion, than by reality, or

> authority, or any legal standard, or judicial precedent, or statute (325).

Simons argued in the same vein, calling persuasive arguments, while not entirely rational, at least "extra-logical." As he states:

> According to this view, prototypical persuaders such as salespeople and politicians offer facts and reasons to their audience, but acceptance of their arguments by audiences always rests on something *more than*, or *other than*, the evidence of the logical arguments they present (102, author's italics).

That is again where the problem lies in our pedagogical presentation of persuasion and argumentation as different processes of discourse. By stressing the logical development or arguments, the emotional acceptance of thee arguments is left untouched. Even though the introductory texts examined allow for and even encourage the interdependence of emotion and logic, they still allow for and encourage the split between persuasion and argumentation, between convincing by the means of appeals or emotion leading conviction by reason (persuasion) and convincing by logical arguments (argumentation).

As was seen in looking at Osborn and Osborn's *Public Speaking*, argumentation at the introductory level is still being taught as almost a purely logical matter. Students are being told that if they simply prove logically that a problem exists and that their solution is the best one to meet their defined problem, they have met the criteria for success. How do we answer them when their audience fails to respond to their logical presentation but instead supports a less well-thought out but more emotionally-wrought argument? Additionally, by instructing students in argumentation as logic, we fail to equip these students with the ability to critique persuasive messages effectively. We fail to deal with issue such as the ethical use of emotion in arguments if we simply teach students to use logical arguments solely. We end up perpetuating what Walter Fisher described as a "rational world paradigm" (Fisher, 1987, 143-57).

Instead of continuing the split between persuasion and argumentation, between conviction including emotion and conviction based solely on logic (a form of conviction that may exist but has yet to be found, since people are human and not machines), there is a need for a synthesis, an understanding that even so-called "logical" conviction uses emotional appeals of some sort. This synthesis can be reached by applying the ideas of Wallace (1963) and Fisher (1978) and the concept of "good reasons," and the work of Douglas Hesse (1989). A modern pedagogical approach that begins to encompass this plan can be seen in the Warnick and Inch text and their notion of "rhetorical argumentation" (1989).

In his seminal article in 1963, "The Substance of Rhetoric: Good Reasons," Wallace noted first the problem which remains in our public speaking texts: We tell student how to construct effective speeches, but we do not deal with the substance of these speeches. As Wallace stated: "Most of our textbooks pay little attention to what speeches are about; rather, their point of view is pedagogical. They concentrate on how to make a speech and deliver it" (241). Wallace further argued that rhetoric, that speeches, are all, to some degree or another, persuasive. "Much discourse and discussion that is thought of as didactic is probably persuasive in effect if not in intent," Wallace wrote. "In brief, it would appear that expository speaking and writing recognize choices and values that differ from those of persuasive discourse principally in that they are more remote and less apparent" (242).

Given that expository discourse contains elements of persuasion, the dichotomy between argumentation (argument based on fact, on reason) and persuasion (argument based on emotional appeals and reason) does not exist. Since intentionally informative discourse, discourse based on facts, can be just as persuasive in effect as discourse based on emotional appeals and reason, students should be taught to use persuasive methods in speaking and to understand the persuasive nature of supposedly informative discourse (Kinneavy, 1971). Wallace also argued that persuasive discourse, which is for all practical purposes all message-transmitting discourse (in the sense that even informative discourse has a persuasive flavor), is delivered as judgment statements, "statements having to do with action, motives, feelings, emotions, attitudes and values" (242). These judgments are responses to two fundamental question: "What shall I do or believe? What ought I to do?" (242).

Since message-transmitting discourse, then, is persuasive in either intent or effect, Wallace asked rhetoricians to adopt the term "good reasons." Good reasons, in Wallace's definition, are statements offered in support of ought propositions or value propositions — what shall I do? and what shall I believe? The use of good reasons in discourse would have the effect, Wallace continued, of "reminding the speaker, as well as [rhetoricians and teachers], that the substance of rhetorical proof has to do with values and value-judgments, i.e., with what is held to be good (248). Additionally, the use of good reasons as the basis for support in discourse would take care of the problem of distinctions between logical and emotional proof. As Wallace stated:

> Any distinctions that modern rhetoric may be trying to maintain between logical, ethical, and emotional modes of proof would immediately become unreal and useless, except for purposes of historical criticism . . . . For the theorist . . . of discourse, the disappearance of these weasel concepts, logical proof and emotional proof, would permit a description of the materials of practical discourse in terms of two broad categories: materials deriving from the specific occasion, and materials consisting of general value judgments (248-49).

This conception of rhetoric as the search for good reasons begins the step toward a theory of persuasion that encompasses logic and emotion effectively, that acknowledges the role that emotional appeals play in conviction. However, Wallace never offers a way to distinguish between good reasons and, so to speak, "bad" good reasons, or appeals that appear to function as supports to ought statements, but instead function as more base appeals. Fisher attempts to provide a model for the use of good reasons (1978).

Fisher first offers a definition of good reasons that goes little beyond Wallace's. Fisher terms a good reason "those elements that provide warrants for accepting or adhering to the advice fostered by any form of communication that can be considered rhetorical" (376). Fisher takes a step forward when he provides an ethical standard for measuring between good reasons and "bad" good reasons. A good reason is "good" when it is tied to a value that "makes a pragmatic difference in one's life and in one's community" (383). Fisher, making it plain that he opposes the imposition of any hierarchical standard of values, offers a definition that provides a method for evaluating good reasons. In order for this evaluatory scheme to function, however, it is necessary to add one word to Fisher's definition. A good reason is one that makes a positive pragmatic difference in one's life and in one's community. (Fisher may have included the idea of a positive difference in his use of the word pragmatic.) By positive, I mean a difference that improves in some manner the quality of life for an individual or a community while at the same time not decreasing the quality of life for another member of the community. Fisher further defined what a "good reason" is with a more-developed five-part "Logic of Good Reasons" are "Consequence," "Consistency," and "Transcendence." These three components provide instructors and students criteria for determining the credibility and probably efficacy of a "good reason."

What does this conception of good reasons as the substance of discourse mean for the teaching of persuasion? First, by acknowledging the concept that even so-called factual statements are, in effect, persuasive statements, the distinction between conviction by persuasion (emotion and reason) and conviction by argumentation (reason alone) can be discarded. There is no need for separate sections in our introductory public speaking textbooks to teach argumentation skills. Argumentation and persuasion should be presented as one and the same thing. Secondly, the concept of good reasons requires that we as teachers and as textbook writers spend less time talking about the components of persuasive discourse (since we have decided that the components are good reasons) and more time talking and writing about how to discover and use good reasons in discourse production, and how to analyze discourse, especially so-called factual discourse, in order to ferret out the good reasons in the discourse, to discover why the facts are facts. In short, we will be required to teach students not just to follow guidelines that will enable them to produce discourse, but to question the very substance of the "factual" evidence and "emotional" appeals. This approach would dissolve the distinction between logical appeals, appeals to "fact" (argumentation), and emotional appeals (persuasion). It would end the preference given to "factual" argument with its insistence on the persuasive nature of facts.

Douglas Hesse (1989) offers a method for this style of teaching. Although writing primarily to introduce a method of critical reading, Hesse's method also works well, with adaptation, for teaching students to come up with good reasons for their arguments. To adapt Hesse:

1. What shared assumptions allow the audience and the speaker to communicate? Why are those assumptions shared?

2. Imagine a different audience, an audience that would have difficulty understanding the discourse. What assumptions would that audience share?
3. What makes us take the discourse seriously? How does it attract our attention? Or why do we invite it into our attention?
4. What desires does the discourse fulfill?
5. Who benefits from attending to this discourse? Why? How?
6. Who would not benefit from this discourse? Why? How?
7. What is absent from this discourse? (21)

These seven steps would best be put to use in the construction and critique of arguments and evidence. Rather than simply providing a checklist of criteria for credible evidence and reputable sources, this approach requires students to acknowledge both the special nature of the subject and the audience to which the discourse is aimed. By using the above method, or a variation of this method, we require our students to think. In creating or evaluating persuasive discourse, this method requires students to be aware of the audience as both reasonable and emotional actors. It is not enough to construct an argument that has equal parts of logical, ethical and emotional proof; it is not enough to "logically prove' that a problem exists and then offer a solution to the problem that "logically solves" it. Instead, students must come up with arguments that acknowledge the interdependence of logic and emotion and the blurring of the distinction between fact and belief. By the same token, requiring our students to use this method in producing their discourse will also provide them a method for evaluating the discourse of others. Rather than accepting as "fact," evidence presented to bolster an argument, students will be allowed and encouraged to question the evidence as "fact."

Does this require a massive rethinking of teaching methodology? No. Does this require all new textbooks? No. Modifications of teaching methods to allow for the teaching of critical thinking skills in place of methods that teach students to simply fill in the dots to produce discourse will help. Good teachers do that already. Emphasis in our introductory public speaking textbooks on the inter-relationship of logic and emotion and acknowledgement that argumentation and persuasion are the same thing will also help. Warnick and Inch emphasize, especially in the section on the rhetorical perspective of argumentation, the interdependency of logic and emotion. They also acknowledge and emphasize the ethical role of argumentation. Ethical arguments are more than simply logically valid arguments. They must also be arguments that enhance the quality of life of the community — arguments, in other words, that employ the "good reasons" of Wallace and Fisher. Warnick and Inch write: "The humanistic standard [of ethics] assumes that if the process of argumentation has certain characteristics [good reasons], the potential of all parties for making choices that enhance self-development and their quality of life is encouraged" (16).

Josina Makau, in *Reasoning and Communication: Thinking Critically About Arguments* (1990) also provides some interesting pedagogical approaches to teaching rhetorical argumentation. Makau highlights the interdependence of logic and emotion in effective argumentation. "Logic is not enough for reasoned interaction. Emotions also play an important role. *Good argumentation involves a balance between logic and emotion*" (46, author's italics). In illustrating this balance between logic and emotion, Makau asks students to analyze arguments not merely for their logical structure and use of evidence, but also for the values that undergird the arguments (206). She uses what she describes as "Family Life Issues" (205) to illustrate the interdependence of logic and emotion, of fact and value, the need to discover and understand the value premises that support the arguments. In completing these activities, students come to see that simply constructing a logically coherent argument is not enough — values and beliefs must be considered.

By upgrading the teaching of persuasion, the teaching of practical discourse, by returning to the notion of reasoning that has been credited to argumentation, by ending the unnecessary distinction between argumentation and persuasion, we will return the practice back to its origin, back to when rhetoric was the power to persuade and convince and improve the condition of humanity. We will return to persuasive discourse the ethical quality that will help to rescue it from derogation as sophistry and trickery. We will prepare students to become the type of people that Isocrates envisioned as products of his rhetorical training. We are, to put it simply, teaching people to think critically and act ethically. That should be our role as communication educators.

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Instructional Communication Strategies for Adapting to a Multicultural Introductory Course

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No educator is surprised to hear that college enrollment for members of racial and ethnic groups is continuing to rise (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1990). However, this increase was particularly striking for us after we began teaching in the southwestern United States. We had moved from Minnesota, where the proportion of college students who are minority-group members is only 4%, to New Mexico where the proportion of college students who are minority-group members is 35%, the highest for any state in the continental United States[1] (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1990). We now look out into multicultural classrooms that will increase in cultural diversity year after year. As a result of this increase in cultural diversity, one question facing those responsible for teaching communication courses is: What changes, if any, are needed in the instructional strategies for teaching in a multicultural introductory communication course?

Many of us often forget that our teaching is also grounded in a theoretical perspective. Exploring and making our theoretical perspective explicit functions to help us deal with problems and changes occurring in the classrooms and allows us to respond to changes in a systematic manner. For us, the best way to answer the question about how to adapt to multicultural classrooms is to take a theoretical perspective that is grounded in the ethnographic literature. An ethnographic approach to communication education focuses on the use of situationally grounded studies and the comparative analysis of cultures. The concepts, methods, and resources that take an ethnographic perspective on communication will prove fruitful for improving our courses and help us deal with the multicultural classrooms we now face or will face in the near future.

To begin to answer the question about teaching in the multicultural introductory communication course, we examined current literature, analyzed situations occurring in our own classrooms, and surveyed students about their perceptions of the courses in which they were enrolled. Based on our investigations, we will describe several instructional communication strategies we argue may be used to adapt communication courses to an increasingly diverse student population. We will present strategies in four general areas of teaching in the introductory communication course: a) Expanding the parameters of culture, b) Language, c) Assignments, and d) Resources. Finally, we will discuss issues of evaluation of teaching effectiveness in the multicultural classroom.

ADAPTATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

Expanding the Definition of Culture

Traditionally, when thinking of the multicultural classroom and looking to the available literature, our attention is focused on students of different ethnic backgrounds and/or international students. Collier and Powell (1990) argue for the importance of differentiating between issues of ethnicity in the classroom and issues of culture. Ethnicity, then, does not constitute the culture of a classroom, but rather becomes part of the emergent classroom culture (Collier & Powell, 1990). The time has come when we must broaden our understanding of culture in the classroom realizing that, along with ethnic minorities and international students, there are many other minority groups represented. Therefore, we define culture as a historically transmitted system of shared symbols and meaning (Schneider, 1976). This definition allows us to expand our notion of who is a "minority" student, e.g., persons with disabilities as a culture (D.O. Braithwaite 1990; 1991; Emry & Wiseman, 1987; Padden & Humphres, 1988), Vietnam veterans as a culture (C.A. Braithwaite, 1990a), older persons as a culture (Carmichael, 1988), "blue-collar" urban males as a culture (Philipsen, 1975; 1976; 1986), and gay culture (Majors, 1988) to name a few.

Expanding the definition of culture encourages instructors to recognize the unique needs of members of these groups and to recognize contributions that members of these cultural groups can make. For example, we have provided opportunities for physically disabled students to talk about their disability in the interpersonal communication class, opening up discussions of uncertainty and discomfort among majority students. At the same time, these discussions may serve as a way for the disabled student to let able-bodied others know what it is like to be a member of the disabled culture. Further, we are able to discuss communication theory and its applicability to different cultural groups. In the interpersonal communication course, we have discussed research arguing that a norm of reciprocity of self-disclosure is problematic for able-bodied persons when communicating with disabled others, as there is no acceptable way for able-bodied persons to reciprocate when a disabled person has disclosed how they broke their neck (D. 0. Braithwaite, 1988a). This situation gives us the opportunity to test and discuss the applicability of communication theory in light of a cultural group to whom it may not apply.

Focusing attention in the classroom on students of different cultures serves to make the concept of culture "problematic," giving rise to heightened student awareness of cultural differences and similarities with their colleagues. For example, when we collected data from our students, we found that students used several different address terms for ethnicity indicating Spanish origin. While a majority of our students used the term "Hispanic," others used "Mexican-American," "Spanish-American," "Portuguese," and "mixed" (to indicate they had one Anglo and one Hispanic parent). We know that these address terms will differ in other geographic regions as well. In Los Angeles, many persons will use the term "Latino," yet that term was not used by any of the students we questioned. Confronting such issues as address terms in the classroom allows instructors and students to find alternative terms with cultural differences that are salient to students from different cultural groups.

Language

There are two language issues we attempt to address in adapting to a multicultural classroom. First is the problem of assuming homogeneity. We have not seen a textbook intended for use in the introductory communication courses that did not use a generic "us" or "we" when describing or prescribing communication behaviors. All too often the texts imply a homogeneity among the students, and ignore cultural diversity. For example, one of the texts (DeVito, 1988), a hybrid interpersonal communication and public speaking course, is full of statements like, "*we* are an egocentric society" (111), "all *our* interactions need to be characterized by the principle of balance" (111), and "*we* can often tell when two people genuinely like each other" (157), etc.[2] This does not reflect on any intentional ethnocentrism on the part of the textbook author, it merely reflects the purpose of our mass-produced textbooks to address the largest portion of their audience.

Because of the above, we work hard to avoid assuming homogeneity of our students. We do this by avoiding in our lectures, discussions, and handouts any use of the generic "us" or "we" when it comes to referring to communication behavior. In much the same way women have objected to the use of the generic "he" (Martyna, 1978), members of minority groups have objected to the implication that research on communication of Anglo college students applies to them as well. Accordingly, we consistently reveal the population of any study we refer to in the course to let the students know whether the findings do or do not apply to their cultural group. For example, when discussing turn-taking cues in conversation, we refer students to studies by Schegloff (1972) which report what is known about some Anglo patterns of conversation, as well as studies by Philips (1983) which contrast Anglo patterns with those of some Native Americans. Although we cannot describe all the studies that report distinctive patterns of communication, repeated reference to some studies of other cultural groups communicates to the students our sensitivity to the cultural differences present in the classroom. Our goal is to have the students understand that the field of communication studies includes an interest in, and appreciation of, cultural diversity.

The second language issue we are concerned with are the problems with overgeneralization of cultures. Jensen (1985) warned that the superficial study of cultures, particularly when it comes to studying nonverbal communication, leads to a tendency to overgeneralize findings and ignore the important variations that exist within a culture. For example, Hall's (1966) seminal study of proxemics across cultures lumps a variety of cultures under the heading of "Arabs," and thereby glosses over the significant differences between nomadic tribes of Saudi Arabia and the shopkeepers in Baghdad, between the fundamentalist holy man in Jordan and the Mercedes salesman in Kuwait, etc. "Native American" is a term many use to label significantly diverse cultural groups. For example, the name "Athabaskan" is used by multiple tribal groups, each seeing themselves as distinct from the others (Rushforth, 1981; Scollon & Wong-Scollon, 1990). Before coming to New Mexico we were not sensitive to the fact that the label "Apache" does not take into account the variety of Apache tribes throughout the southwest, e.g., Chirahuaca Apache, Cibecue Apache, Jicarillo Apache, Mescalaro Apache, and Pima Apache. Studies of communication patterns of one group of Apache cannot easily be generalized to other Apache. We find that by demonstrating reluctance to overgeneralize to cultures, our students are less likely to make the same mistake, and we communicate our interest in understanding the diversity within, as well as across, cultural groups.

Assignments

The purpose of the strategies described above is to communicate to the multicultural class that sensitivity to cultural differences is an important part of teaching communication. Because many introductory communication courses also provide students with an opportunity to write and/or conduct communication research, the instructor who wants to adapt to the multicultural classroom can heighten students' sensitivity to cultural issues by giving assignments that allow and encourage the analysis of cultural similarities and differences in communication. That is, the instructor can develop assignments, or be open to student proposed assignments, that would allow the students to examine communication issues that are unique to a particular culture. For example, after presenting cross-cultural research on the use and interpretation of silence (C.A. Braithwaite, 1990b), a student who is a Mescalaro Apache was asked to present the findings concerning silence among the Cibecue Apache to her

Mescalaro relatives to compare similarities and differences. This assignment serves three purposes. First, the comparative approach encourages the student to develop a heightened awareness of her or his own cultural patterns of communication. Second, the student's understanding of her or his within-culture relationships becomes more refined and specific. Finally, when the student discusses the results of this assignment with the class, everyone's knowledge of cross-cultural similarities and differences is broadened.

A second strategy is to ask students to "test" some of the prescriptions for communication found in our textbooks by comparing the prescriptions with the preferred communication behavior of their own culture. Courses that include instruction in public speaking usually present an Aristotelian model that is considered to be effective in most Western cultural contexts (Campbell, 1981). The "conventional form" for public speaking (Burke, 1968) is often presented as a useful tool for preparing almost all public presentations. However, we also inform students that other models for public speaking exist which could be more appropriate in certain cultural contexts. For example, Jensen (1985) discusses how the restrictions placed on speaking time in our public speeches is literally foreign to many other cultures. Philipsen (1972) presents an instructive contrast of Aristotelian rhetorical theory with that of the Navajo. Without down-playing the utility of our conventional form, exposure to other conceptualizations of public discourse can lead to a greater understanding of the importance of situational and cultural appropriateness in public speaking. Students can be asked to find similar studies that present culturally specific data on communication and compare and contrast the results with the material from their texts and lectures.[3]

Finally, another approach is to instruct students to describe the cultural patterns of communication in their own cultural group and compare and contrast these with the descriptions of communication presented in class. One assignment we have used in the introductory interpersonal communication course asks students to evaluate the communication advice put forth in popular magazines by evaluating the advice in light of communication theories studied in class and testing that advice on people outside the classroom. Students typically design questions administered in survey or interview form. Several of our students have chosen to test the communication advice on members of minority groups. One student chose to test the advice on marital conflict styles on Black and Hispanic couples. This gave the student the opportunity to review literature on these couples' communication and to test the applicability of communication theory for these minority couples. The goal of these assignments is to communicate that, although the information and prescriptions presented in our courses are useful, they are not able to account for communication in all cultural contexts.

Resources

The above suggestions may sound as though we are advocating turning all communication courses into intercultural communication courses. Although at some point in the not-too-distant future this may become necessary, for now we are suggesting that the instructor in the introductory communication course has the burden to become as sensitive as possible to the diversity of communication practices found in the world today. We believe the best way to accomplish this is to familiarize oneself with the ethnographic literature available on various cultural patterns of communication. Instead of studying culture by focusing on "universals" (i.e.,Gudykunst & Kim, 1984), we can be more informative and helpful to students by teaching them to look for, understand, and appreciate the tremendous amount of variance in cultural communication practices. As stated by Hymes (1972), human communication "cannot be understood apart from the evolution and maintenance of its ethnographic diversity" (41).

There are many resources that would be useful for starting to find information about culturally distinctive patterns of communication that could be used in the multicultural classroom. Five resources that are particularly helpful include:

1. Gerry Philipsen & Donal Carbaugh's (Eds.). (1986). "A Bibliography of Fieldwork in the Ethnography of Communication." This provides citations of 282 studies that describe and analyze diverse speech communities.
2. John Gumperz & D. Hymes' (Eds.). (1972). *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography of Communication*. This reader provides 19 ethnographic studies of communication rules in verbal and nonverbal behavior.
3. Richard Bauman & Joel Sherzer's (Eds.). (1974). *Explorations in the Ethnography of Speaking.* This is a reader similar to Gumperz & Hymes presenting 21 ethnographic studies.
4. Donal Carbaugh's (Ed.). (1990). *Cultural Communication and Intercultural Contact.* The most recent collection of ethnographies available covering many different dimensions of communicative behavior.
5. Two journals that are excellent sources for current cultural studies of communication are *Language in Society,* and *Research on Language and Social Interaction.* The former began publishing in 1972 and the latter in 1987.

It is difficult to imagine that there is a topic covered in any communication course for which you could not find data from other cultures by looking at these and other ethnographic sources, e.g., self-disclosure, conflict, male/female relationships, socialization, nonverbal communication, etc.

EVALUATING EFFECTIVENESS IN THE CLASSROOM

When trying new approaches in the classroom, instructors will want to evaluate whether such ventures are successful. We sought to do this by asking students to write about whether the courses applied to them culturally, stressing that they take into account such cultural factors as ethnicity, gender, and age. Students from four communication courses responded to open-ended questions detailing how well they believed the course topics, lectures, discussions, texts, assignments, and classroom exercises applied to them and their lives. Of the 83 respondents, 57% indicated they were Anglo American and 39% indicated they were minority students (slightly higher than our state average). A small number of students did not indicate their ethnicity. Of the minority students, 72% were Hispanic, 5% Native American, 1% Black American; and the remainder fell into other categories or simply indicated they were minority. Fifty-six percent of the students were juniors and seniors; 43% were males and 57% were females.

Since 39% of our students were from ethnic minority groups, we fully expected these students to be critical of the applicability of communication research and theory to their cultures. We found just the opposite to be true. Students in our courses readily reported that they perceived the course content to be relevant to their lives. One male Mexican-American's[4] response was typical of those received, "I feel all topics applied to my life because they are very common things that happen to all people including myself." One Hispanic female from a nonverbal communication course responded, "Understanding nonverbal communication culturally, gender differences, etc. This has helped me recognize cultural differences and understand why people are the way they are. I am not as judgmental."

A few minority students indicated that studying other cultures did not apply to their lives. Yet interestingly, they often ended their statements saying that these studies were ultimately positive for them. For example, when responding to a question regarding topics covered in class that did not apply directly to their lives, one Hispanic female said, "Studying cultures — Danes, Japanese, German, and English because I have not encountered them yet, but for future reference, I think it will be very important." Another Hispanic female responded, "Danish life — I don't know any Danish people and will probably never go there. But this really didn't bother me. It is OK to learn about other cultures. I can't really think of anything that couldn't be applied." We are encouraged that these students were able to understand the usefulness of studies about persons from cultures other than their own.

How do we interpret these results? On one hand, we believe that these students are satisfied with the job we are doing to adapt our teaching to different cultural groups. This validates the perspective advanced in this paper. It is possible that many of our students may be so assimilated into Anglo classroom culture that they may not readily recognize, or be able to retrospectively recall, instances when communication theory and research did not apply to them or their culture. To better understand this, it has been suggested that we ask students how well information from the courses would apply to communication within their families. This would allow us to examine the salience of classroom concepts within situationally grounded cultural contexts outside of the classroom, which is of paramount importance.

CONCLUSION

If one of the goals of our introductory communication course is to provide students with the information and skills necessary to make them more competent and adaptive communicators (Goss & O'Hair, 1988), then one way to accomplish this is to provide an appropriate role model for the students by demonstrating sensitivity, knowledge, and appreciation of cultural diversity. An instructor can do this by examining what is meant by "culture," their use of language, by considering the kind of assignments given, and by consulting a variety of resources to expand one's knowledge and understanding of cultural diversity in communication. We also suggest that instructors attempt to evaluate the success of the adaptations they have made. Throughout this paper we have focused on taking an ethnographic approach to these issues. That is, concentrating on the situational nature of communication and presenting and conducting comparative cultural analyses. These and many other instructional strategies will continue to be necessary if we are to offer introductory communication courses that will meet the needs of students entering increasingly multicultural universities and multicultural worlds. To prepare them for this, we must make sure they leave our courses knowing the importance of culture in human communication. Hymes (1972) put it best when he said "a satisfactory understanding of the nature and unity of (humans) must encompass and embrace, not abstract from, the diversity" (41).

NOTES

[1] According to *The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac,* only the District of Columbia has a higher proportion of minority-group students in college (41%) (1990, p. 15).

[2] In all fairness, DeVito makes numerous attempts to remind the reader to be careful in generalizing with some of the findings presented in the text, e.g., "regulators are clearly

culture-bound and not universal" (147), "this distance is still so short that it is not considered proper in public . . . (at least for Americans)" (157). However, despite these disclaimers, we wonder whether students are really able to resist overgeneralization.

[3] For an excellent source of studies such as these, see Bloch, P. (Ed.) *Political Language and Oratory in Traditional Society.*

[4] The cultural labels used in this section of the paper are the terms that individual student respondents used to refer to themselves.

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The R3A3 Processing System for Experiential Learning in the Classroom

Pamela L. Gray

In education today, much emphasis is placed on "experiential learning," or learning by doing. An experiential approach to teaching allows students to participate in activities that provide concrete examples of concepts and skills being taught in class. Experiential activities seem especially appropriate in a communication class in which a focus is on developing communication competence, because becoming a better communicator involves active practice and evaluation.

However, experiential learning is not totally without problems. (For more information about problems associated with experiential learning activities and tips for increasing their effectiveness, see Eisenberg, 1980; Gray & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1985). One area that can present problems is in the processing, or debriefing, of activities. Once an activity is completed, students sometimes need help in understanding and learning from what just happened. Instructors run the risk of being naive if they assume that the exercise alone will provide the students with enough information to be useful to them. Processing activities is, perhaps, the most important part of the experience. If done poorly, the activity may become a waste of time or, worse yet, a confusing or disconfirming experience that may be remembered forever.

TWO METHODS THAT CAN BE APPLIED TO THE PROCESSING OF ACTIVITIES OR EXERCISES

Even though most educators would agree with the above assessment of the importance of processing activities well, few instructors have had any specific training in how to process activities. Such a lack of training in "how to teach" in general seems to be widespread. Sorensen (1989) states that "new teachers go into the classroom and quickly realize that 'teaching' information will be an exercise in 'trial and error'" (328). Further, she indicates that it is likely that "teachers model instructional strategies from their communication professors without knowing how or why it appears to work" (328). It seems reasonable to assume that the same may be true when it comes to processing activities. Through trial and error, many instructors find a procedure that seems to work for them, while others, even after years of teaching, have no planned procedure and view processing as a part of teaching that you "just do." Learning processing skills in such a manner may be satisfactory for some instructors, but waiting for time to pass to learn from mistakes and/or hoping that some natural talent in this area will suffice somehow seems inadequate. Further, as role models for potential teachers, our own lack of systematic ways for processing activities may contribute to a detrimental use of experiential learning techniques.

While it is natural and desirable for an instructor to deviate from pre-established processing questions to respond to the needs of the situation at hand, overall guidelines for the effective processing of activities may be useful. For educators concerned about the quality of their own processing of activities, concerned with modeling a systematic approach to debriefing experiential learning, and/or concerned for providing new instructors under their tutelage with an easy-to-learn technique to provide a basis for a thorough processing of activities, a system for processing activities may be a useful tool.

Talking with communication educators at conferences and conventions and perusing materials written for prospective teachers (see, for example, Cooper, 1988; McKeachie, 1986; Seiler, Schuelke, & Lieb-Brilhart, 1984) seem to indicate two major systems already in use to aid in the processing of experiential learning activities. These methods are Bloom's Taxonomy and the EDIT System.[1] A detailed comparison of Bloom, EDIT and the system outlined in this paper (R3A3) can be found in Table 1. The following information will highlight major differences among the systems.

Table 1
Visual Comparison of the Components of Bloom's Taxonomy, EDIT, and R3A3

Bloom	EDIT	R3A3
Cognitive Domain	Experience	Report
Knowledge (3/9)	Describe	React
Comprehension (2)	Infer	Reflect
Application	Transfer	Analyze
Analysis (3)		Assess
Synthesis (3)		Apply
Evaluation (2)		
Affective Domain		
Receiving (3)		
Responding (3)		
Valuing (3)		
Organization (2)		
Characterization by Value or Value Complex (2)		

Psychomotor Domain
Gross Bodily Movements (2)
Movements Involving Two or
More Bodily Movements
Finely Coordinated Movements
(5)
Non-Verbal Communication
Behaviors (3)
Speech Behaviors (4)

Note: The information in column 1 is from *Behavioral objectives and Instruction* (pp. 44-75) by R.J. Kibler, L.L. Barker, and D.T. Miles, 1970 Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. The first number next to each category represents the number of subcategories in the particular subcategory; the second number next to each category represents the number of sub-subcategories. The information in column 2 is from *Processing games and simulations: The EDIT system* (pp. 10-11) adapted by A. Covert, in R. Abelman (Ed.), Instructor's Manual to accompany *Human communication: Principles, context, and skills*, 1980, New York: St. Martin's Press.

Since the 1950s, the taxonomy of behaviors developed by Bloom's committee has been used to guide instructors in developing educational objectives for enhanced learning outcomes. Certainly most, if not all, students in education courses have studied this body of work for its usefulness in understanding the complexity of learning (see Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Kibler, Barker, & Miles, 1970). However, translating this taxonomy into a system useful for the somewhat spontaneous needs of processing activities shows it to be too difficult to be of much use. For example, the cognitive domain, perhaps the most commonly-used of the three domains in the taxonomy, includes six levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. A closer look at the most detailed of these levels, knowledge, shows three subcategories (knowledge of specifics, knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics, and knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field). Further, a total of nine sub-subcategories can be found under these three subcategories (Kibler *et al.*, 1970, pp. 47-51). Using this information to generate a system to use in processing activities would be cumbersome at best and would require many hours of study and practice in order to commit these ideas to memory for ready use. Add to that the fact that Bloom's taxonomy includes two other major domains (affective and psychomotor), and it becomes possible to believe that this information has limited use in the actual processing of experiential learning activities.

First published in the 1970s, the second system, the EDIT System, was developed specifically for use in processing experiential activities (Covert, 1980). Unlike Bloom's taxonomy, the only goal of this concise system is the thorough debriefing of activities. It does not attempt to help understand or explain human behavior, it is there to help instructors and students come to their own understandings and explanations by providing a systematic framework for this process. The system consists of four steps: Experience (E), Describe (D), Infer (I), and Transfer (T). This system is both easy to teach and use — on the surface. The major drawback found with this system is in its very simplicity. For an inexperienced teacher, the system does not provide anything other than broad guidelines from which to generate questions. Since the first step is simply to do the activity, there really are only three levels of questions that come to mind in the actual processing (Describe, Infer and Transfer). The EDIT author provides helpful lists of possible question areas within each category; however, the trigger words remain few and, therefore, possibly problematic. While the EDIT author cautions instructors to "plan almost as long for processing as the game/simulation takes to play" (11), it is easy for the new teacher to go through all three levels quickly and feel as though the processing was complete. Indeed, frequent observations of brief processing done by GTAs and methods students prompted the development of the system described in this article.

In addition to the above problem areas, three specific concerns have been noted through experience with the EDIT System. Recent discussions with graduate students who were taught the R3A3 System and were using it in their own classrooms reinforced the ideas presented in this paper. Further, using a hypothetical exercise about stereotyping, a colleague (who teaches the GTAs in her class the EDIT System) and this author (who teaches the GTAs/methods students in her classes the R3A3 System) generated sample questions using the two systems. We attempted to keep the questions simple, as we felt a beginning instructor would tend to do. This "exercise" further depicted the problem areas detailed below.

First, the Describe Category tends to leave out the affective domain. Too often inexperienced teachers ask students to tell what happened on a descriptive level without getting to their feelings about what happened. This seems to be an important consideration to explore early in the debriefing process since this may be the kind of disclosure that motivates the students to get involved in further analysis. For example, if a certain behavior (e.g., lack of direct eye contact) makes people uncomfortable enough to want to end the interaction, the motivation to want to learn how to alter the behavior may exist more clearly for the students. The system being proposed here seeks to avoid this problem with the inclusion of two categories which call for both descriptive input as well as the possible emotional responses associated with the behaviors shown (Report and React Categories).

The second concern is rooted in the tendency of inexperienced teachers to be focused blindly on the point they want to draw from the activity. At times, the point the instructor sees as the primary outcome of the activity may not be the most important outcome for a given student. It seems clear that a series of focused questions (e.g., "What happened when you heard the correct solution?") may not touch upon a pressing concern of any one student. The system proposed here seeks to alleviate this potential problem by providing the instructor with a place in the processing system to allow students to voice their concerns, questions, etc. The Reflect Category, then, seeks to address this potential problem area by creating a time for student input of a less focused nature.

The third concern lies in the breadth of the Infer Category. A critical component of "what does this mean" is to help students see the complexity of the variables/behaviors being studied. It may be all too easy to generate a question asking students to tie up the principle exhibited through the exercise and be done with it. The label "Infer" may not generate a reminder to the instructor to discover why the findings of the exercise may have occurred. Further, it often is important to evaluate the conclusions drawn to make sure we are not generating simplistic truisms rather than helping students see the dynamic process-oriented discipline those of us in speech communication know the field to be. The system being proposed here seeks to avoid this problem by starting with an Analyze Category to generate questions which guide students to draw conclusions about what they experienced in the activity and why these things occur. In addition, however, the proposed system includes an Assess Category which seeks evaluation of the possible conclusions drawn from an exercise.

For the reasons described above, then, the R3A3 System has taken the first category of the EDIT System (the Describe Category) and changed/divided it into the first two categories of R3A3: Report and React. The R3A3 then adds a third category: Reflect. As with the EDIT System, the proposed R3A3 System ends with an understanding of what was just seen/learned and an application of the ideas gleaned from the activity to situations taking place in the students' lives. These last two categories of EDIT (Infer and Transfer) are somewhat analogous to the R3A3's Analyze and Apply Categories; the R3A3 adds a category in between called Assess. Table 2 presents a comparison of the EDIT and the R3A3 Systems.

Table 2
Comparison between EDIT and R3A3

EDIT	R3A3
Exercise Do the game or simulation.	This is not dealt with as part of this processing system.
Describe The generic question for this category is "What did you see, hear, think and feel?"	**Report** The generic question for this category is "What Happened?"
	React The generic question for this category is "How did you feel?"
XXXXXXXXXX	**Reflect** The generic question for this category is "What else can be said?"
Infer The generic question for this category is "What general principles, theories or hypotheses might be developed about interactions, behaviors, or tendencies?"	**Analyze** (Summary — what can be said) The generic question for this category is "What and why?" (Why it happened)

XXXXXXXXXX	**Assess** The generic question for this category is "Is this good or bad?"
Transfer The generic question for this category is "So what? How might you use this concept in another situation or how does this information apply to what you do?"	**Apply** (Summary — what can be concluded) The generic question for this category is "What can be concluded about this issue and how can it be used?"

It should be understood that this author is not negating the EDIT System as a useful tool in the processing of activities. Indeed, as anyone familiar with the EDIT System will notice, the system proposed in this paper owes great debt to the EDIT System (as well as Bloom's Taxonomy) and the author encourages any educator interested in using the R3A3 System to read the materials written about Bloom's Taxonomy and the EDIT System. However, a system more complete than EDIT yet less complex than Bloom may provide inexperienced teachers (and trainers of yet-to-be teachers) with a more effective alternative for processing experiential activities. The R3A3 Processing System was devised to fulfill this need.[2]

THE R3A3 SYSTEM FOR PROCESSING ACTIVITIES

The R3A3 Processing System consists of six categories that should provide a basis for a thorough examination of an activity. A description of the type of information sought in each category is provided, but instructors are encouraged to create their own questions to fit the specific activity being used. While very simple, open-ended questions (e.g., in the Report Category, ask "What happened?") may be useful in some circumstances, more specific, activity-oriented questions (e.g., in the Report Category, ask "What roles did you see the people take on at the start of the exercise?") may be more focused and so more useful and/or time efficient in other cases. Typically, all of the categories are dealt with during the processing of each activity and in the order listed, but exceptions to this can be found easily. A certain category may be inappropriate in a given situation (e.g., asking a group to react to how it felt when unable to complete a task because a group member forgot the instructions may be too sensitive an issue to deal with in front of the whole class). It may seem unnecessary to ask a question in a certain category at times (e.g., asking a group to evaluate their responses to the distortion that took place in a serial transmission exercise may seem overly obvious). For reasons like these, a category may be left out. Instructor questions that follow up on a student's response may skip to a later category, class confusion may cause an instructor to return to an earlier category, a student's response may not fit the category being explored, and so forth, causing the categories to be dealt with out of order and/or repeated. The R3A3 Processing System is not meant to be an inviolable one; it is meant to provide a framework within which each instructor can find ways to process exercises to meet his or her specific needs. The specificity of the trigger word for each category, however, helps to stimulate a thorough processing of activities.

The R3A3 Processing System consists of the following six stages of processing questions: R1-Report, R2-React, R3-Reflect, Al-Analyze, A2-Assess, and A3-Apply. Each type of processing question is detailed in the sections that follow. The label for each category is meant to be a "trigger" word to help a beginning instructor recall the possible steps easily. Two of the categories seem to be an exception to this idea: Analyze and Apply seem to consist of two parts. While this is true, the "extra" idea in each is simply a summary and is included as a reminder to an instructor to decide if a summary of what has been said/agreed upon/concluded so far is needed in order for the next step to make sense.

Report (R1)

Ask the students to state what occurred. Students may recite their observations, the sequence of events that took place, the result of the activity, and so on. In this category, try to keep the responses informative and based on the actual experience: This is what I experienced or saw happen. The generic question for this category is "What happened?" Some sample questions might be "What happened when the exercise first began?," "What changes took place in your behaviors as you moved closer together?," or "How would you describe the process your group went through as it tried to solve the problem?"

React (R2)

Ask the students to state how they felt about what occurred. In this category students should be encouraged to volunteer their emotional reaction to the experience (e.g., confused, frustrated, frightened, angry, hurt, a feeling of friendship, enlightened, a sense of accomplishment, motivated, etc.): This is how I felt about what happened. The generic question for this category is "How did you feel?" Some sample questions might be "How did you feel when you could not agree on a way to proceed?," "How comfortable were you as you moved closer?," or "How satisfied were you with the process your group employed to solve the problem?"

Reflect (R3)

Ask the students to state what else happened and/or might have happened. After reporting and reacting, allow time for other issues to be discussed: share details not reported before, compare and contrast the experiences shared by class members, discuss other possibilities of things that did not happen in class but that might have happened, share similar events experienced outside of class, ask class members to share the thoughts that might be going through their minds at this point, and so on. In this category, students are asked to delve into the activity in depth. The generic question for this category is "What else can be said?" Some sample questions might be "What were some areas that students experienced similarly and differently?," "Do you think what happened to you is typical of other people/groups? Why or why not?," "Has anyone ever seen this behavior exhibited outside of this exercise? Would you care to share this with the class?," or "Is there anything else you would like to add at this point?"

Analyze (A1)

Ask the students to state why they think the events or feelings they just experienced and shared occurred. In this category, students should try to make connections and predictions: This occurred for these possible reasons (e.g., X caused Y to happen); my feelings were the result of X happening; if X had happened, then Y probably would have followed; and so on. Students are encouraged to discover norms of human behavior and possible reasons for these normative behaviors. The generic question for this category is "What and why?" Questions in this category may have to be finalized once the students' answers to Report, React and Reflect have been given. Also, in some instances, the "why" may come before the "what" (e.g., "Why did you feel left out? What does this potentially tell us about the effect of the use of jargon?"); at other times, the "what" may come first (e.g., "What do your feelings tell us about the potential effect of inappropriate nonverbal gestures? Why does this conclusion seem to be true?") The clarity of the progression of ideas would govern the decision here; based on the previous discussion, one choice or the other may make the concepts clearer to the students. Some sample questions might be "Why did you jump into solutions rather than set some criteria by which to judge a good solution?," "Why did your behavior change as you moved closer together?," "Why do you find many examples of this type of behavior in your friendships?," "What can we say about the tendency for human behavior in this area?," or "What can we say about this topic based on this exercise?"

Assess (A2)

Ask the students to state whether or not they think what happened is desirable or undesirable. In this category, students should be encouraged to make judgments as to whether or not they want to keep the feelings and skills that led to their behavior in the exercise or whether they should attempt to modify their behavior/attitudes. Assessments also might be made about whether or not one would be considered a competent communicator given the behaviors/attitudes exhibited. Assessments can be made about the behavior of others (either in the exercise or in examples shared from outside the classroom) as well. In addition to personal evaluation, it is important to try to visualize the judgments others will make about such behaviors (e.g., parents, friends, employers, etc.). This category allows teachers to discuss the many possible angles of a topic. It is easy to fall into the trap of coming up with simple conclusions to complex issues (e.g., labeling people is wrong). It is important for teachers to help students see broader implications. For example, labeling can be limiting and harmful, but some labels (e.g., jock) are inevitable and some are even useful (e.g., learning disabled identifies a problem that can be helped). So, rather than trying to eliminate labels, be wary of the problems with labeling. The generic question for this category is "Is this good or bad?" Some sample questions might be "Was your group's behavior ineffective? Why or why not?," "Was it wrong for you to become uncomfortable when you were seated very close to a stranger? Why or why not?," or "Is it acceptable for friends to treat each other in this manner? Why or why not?" It is important in this category to come to some conclusions about the exercise. A final question well may be "So what are we saying about this behavior/attitude?"

Apply (A3)

Ask the students to state what all of this means to them. In this category, students should discover how they can use this information or awareness to improve their communication skills, relationships, and so on. The first step in this category is to come to some conclusions about the exercise even if they must be tentative or qualified. Some conclusions may have been drawn from the Analyze Step, but it is very possible that the Assess Step had an effect on the conclusions being drawn from the experience. Therefore, it is a good idea to state the final ideas that you hope the students have learned from the activity before going further. Students then should be encouraged to translate what they have experienced in the classroom exercise to events outside of the classroom. Students might react to an example given by the instructor or generate examples themselves. Although experience has shown this author that the conclusions often need to come before the application of the use of the conclusion, as with the Analyze Category, the order may be reversed. At times it may be clearer to ask "What can we generally conclude about this concept?" and then "How can we use this in our friendships?;" at other times, asking "What can we do when a friend behaves with you in this way?" and then following it with "What can we say, then, about competent communication strategies in such situations?" may make the points to be learned easier to comprehend. The generic question for this category is "What can be concluded about this issue and how can it be used?" Some sample questions might be "What are we saying about this behavior/attitude?," "What does our discussion lead us to believe and in what contexts, under what circumstances and with what limitations?," "How can we proceed more effectively when we are first placed in a problem-solving group?," "How can we avoid the feeling of discomfort that comes from being too close to a stranger physically?," "If you met someone in your social circle who behaved as did in the exercise, how might you respond in the future?," "How can we use this information to enhance our own friendships?," or "Can anyone think of an example from your life that would allow us to apply what we learned?"

CONCLUSION

The use of experiential activities can be an effective teaching tool for any instructor. Having a plan for processing the activities used can be a big step toward making this tool a useful one. Instructors may need to adapt their plans by sharing their reactions if people are reluctant to volunteer information, providing options for students to consider if they seem to have trouble formulating ideas or opinions, aiding the students in making connections among ideas and applying them to other experiences, and so on. In addition, each instructor will need to adapt questions to fit the unique characteristics of his or her classroom, students and personal teaching style as well as the goals and time allotted for an exercise. However, while acknowledging that no plan is perfect, we also should realize that to maximize the effectiveness of experiential learning, some plan is better than no plan. The R3A3 Processing System proposed here seeks to provide important trigger words to help an instructor consider the critical areas to explore when debriefing an activity.

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AUTHOR NOTES

A version of the R3A3 Processing System, written by the author of this paper, appears in the Instructor's Manual to accompany *Communication: Competencies and contexts* by Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss.

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NOTES

[1] The EDIT System initially was developed by Myers and Myers (Instructor's Manual to accompany Myers and Myers, *Communicating: People speak.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975). The version referred to in this paper was adapted by Anita Covert (Instructor's Manual to accompany Abelman (Ed.), *Human communication: Principles, contexts, and skills.* New York: St. Martin's Press, 1980).

[2] A version of the R3A3 was published in the Instructor's Manual to accompany Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss, *Communication: Competencies and contexts,* New York: Random House, 1985.

Reading Our Own Speech Critiques as Texts that Reveal Educational Goals, Instructional Roles and Communicative Functions

Jo Sprague

About twenty years ago I reviewed the prescriptive literature related to classroom criticism of students' oral performances. Basically, it consisted of a set of questions about format, timing and wording of critiques that were answered in terms of each author's preference: "Here's how I always do it and it works for me." Recently I had occasion to review the current literature in preparing the instructor's manual for a basic public speaking text.[1] I found that not much has changed. The advice that our field has is still largely anecdotal and consists of recommending techniques for universal application. The scant research that exists still seems directed toward building a general theory of what constitutes effective criticism of oral performance.

In that same ambitious spirit, I presume here to give the final answer to all of the following troubling questions: Who should criticize students' presentations (instructor, peers, or self)? When should criticisms be given (after each speech, at the end of the class session, or at the next class)? How should comments be presented (written, oral, computer generated, during class, or in private conferences)? What should be said in a critique (content or delivery comments, negative or positive evaluations, personally or impersonally phrased)? My answer to all of these questions is "It depends."

In order to unpack the implications of this flip response, I invite a deeper scrutiny of our goals in the introductory performance course. This paper argues that much of the controversy over the effectiveness of various specific methods of speech criticism has been clouded by the absence of a consensus about goals. It seems that our research in both instructional communication and communication education has centered far too much on technique and far too little on questions of educational purpose. Pedagogical theory cannot develop without a strong strand of critical and philosophical work that provides standards against which to evaluate the practical techniques generated by teachers and scholars. Besides urging us to engage in on-going philosophical discussions of our purpose and priorities, the following discussion recommends some ways to examine our present classroom critiques as significant texts. Specifically, a close reading of written comments or transcriptions of oral comments can reveal instructors' assumptions about educational goals, instructional roles and communicative functions. The discourse analysis I suggest may be undertaken formally as part of systematic instructional research projects or it may be used more informally for purposes of self-reflection, curricular review, or training new faculty and TAs.

WHAT DO OUR CRITIQUES REVEAL ABOUT OUR GOALS AS EDUCATORS?

It is customary to include in discussions of classroom criticism, Holtzman's (1960) provocative question that teachers should ask, "What can I say (or write or do) that will result in this student's improving his [sic] communicative ability?" (1). A prior question in my opinion is what do we mean by "improved communicative ability" in the context of the performance-oriented basic course? Are we able to articulate how we expect our students to be different after taking our classes? Just as we cannot evaluate student oral performances without criteria, we cannot evaluate our own critical practices as instructors without clearly articulated goals of instruction. Specifically, it is helpful to consider the relationship between speech criticism and the goals of education in general, the goals of the performance-oriented basic course, and the goals of specific oral assignments. Our beliefs about the purpose of higher education are reflected in national policy, mission statements of particular institutions and in the educational philosophies of individual professors. There is no action without purpose. But there are differences among individuals in the degree to which we are aware of our purposes and there are differences in academic units about the level of consensus about purpose. Recognizing that there are many systems for classifying educational purpose, I have suggested four major goals that are perhaps the most frequently articulated (Sprague, 1990). These are transmitting cultural knowledge, developing students' intellectual skills, providing students with career skills, and/or reshaping the values of society. A commitment to one of these educational goals, or a belief in a certain prioritization among them, will greatly influence the rationale that we present for every educational decision, including the ways we choose to handle speech criticism. These are the values that become, in effect, the major premises for our arguments about how to spend class time in performance courses and how best to deliver criticism to students.[2]

When the overall goal of education is articulated, it becomes easier to think about the next question. That is the issue of how a particular performance course in communication fits into the broader purpose of education. The speeches, debates, and panel discussions that students present in class can be justified in a number of ways. If we read our own catalogues or the introductory statements on our syllabi or if we listen to ourselves as we introduce our courses, we will hear statements like these: (1) "Students are learning to express themselves so that they can join in the ongoing discussion over important public issues." (2) "Students are becoming fluent and articulate so that they can be successful in their careers." (3) "Students are learning communication skills to enable them to advance in their other educational experiences through the epistemic power of dialogue." (4) "Students are learning to be critical listeners so that they can resist unethical attempts at manipulation." And many more.

One useful way to think about the general orientations of communication performance courses is offered by Richard Fulkerson who is a director of an introductory course in composition. The following is drawn on his ideas as laid out in a research report (1978) and a later article (1979).[3] Drawing a four part paradigm of literary criticism from M.H. Abrams' *The Mirror and the Lamp* (1953), Fulkerson (1978) adapted the schema to the teaching of composition. The schematic below shows how the four elements in a communicative transaction — message, reader, writer and universe each imply an emphasis for literary criticism and in turn a possible emphasis in the teaching of composition.

Transactional Element	Literary Emphasis	Composition Emphasis
Reader (Audience)	Pragmatic	Rhetorical
Writer (Speaker)	Expressive	Expressive
Universe	Mimetic	Mimetic
Message	Objective	Formalist

Fulkerson explains how he has adapted these categories from literary criticism to composition studies. Just by substituting the terms speaker for writer and audience for reader, I have found that these four approaches apply to oral composition as well as to written composition. It seems that we reflect one or more of these approaches as we select our textbooks, make our assignments, and evaluate our students' speeches. Here are the descriptions of the types of courses that reflect these orientations, modifying Fulkerson's descriptions only slightly (1978, 6-8).

An introductory course that is built upon *rhetorical* principles would stress the fact that one speaks for an audience and that all decisions should be made on the basis of probable audience reactions. In their purest form, such classes would make heavy use of shift of opinion forms for evaluation of persuasive speeches and comprehension tests for informative speeches. Logically, in order to assess the impact of the speech, at least on the immediate audience, there would tend to be a heavy reliance on peer criticism of speeches.

An introductory course built upon the *expressive* theory would emphasize the value of speaking to the students' own growth. The act of speaking to an audience may clarify values, help one see oneself better, or just make a person feel better. The expressive approach is consonant with the idea of helping students find their own voice. Such a course would probably emphasize personal experiences and speeches which develop positions on ethical and value questions. Activities to overcome communication apprehension and to build confidence would play a major role in such a course.

An introductory course with a primarily *mimetic* emphasis would have as its goal that the students' speeches more accurately reflect the world after the course than before it. Here teachers take the view that students do not speak well because they do not think well; hence a course that works on making them clearer thinkers will make them better speakers. Students also need more information to speak well. They cannot speak until they do research and learn how it really is. Assuming that students speak "inaccurately" because they do not use words correctly, such a class often works on building a rich and correct vocabulary.

The final, and perhaps most traditional, course Fulkerson terms the *formalistic*. The assumption underlying this course is that a student is successful by understanding the forms or elements of good speaking. If a teacher says slang is bad, that is accepted without reference to any other element in the communication transaction, such as the audience or the speaker. Courses which emphasize this approach rely on "the non-contextual defense of topic sentences, or of outlining, . . . or of banning prepositions at the ends of sentences, or of listing certain never-to-be-used words" (9).

Most of the earlier work on speech criticism had looked at the dimensions of the manifest content of the critiques as evident in the four dichotomous categories of content/delivery, positive/negative, atomistic/holistic, and personal/impersonal (Book & Simmons, 1980; Sprague, 1971; Sprague & Schenone, 1981; Vogel, 1973; Young, 1974). Oral or written performance critiques can also be studied to reveal the unstated motivations that guide teachers in making the comments that they do. In various workshops, staff meetings and TA training sessions I have invited instructors to write comments on videotaped samples of student speeches and then to classify their own comments according to Fulkerson's four part system. In each case, the subsequent discussion has moved from considerations of critiques as technical tools to an awareness of critiques as texts that reveal a great deal about the orientation of the writer.

What has emerged from these conversations is the insight that we frequently send our students confusing messages when we highlight one goal in our textbook selection, another in our lectures, another in making an assignment and yet another in our criticism of speeches. Perhaps the most common tension I observe is between a rhetorical emphasis in our lectures and the use of formalist standards in evaluation. "Why do I have to state a thesis sentence in my introduction," they justifiably ask, "if I was successful in persuading my audience without it?" Why indeed? Probably, surface inconsistencies of this sort go back to a teacher's beliefs about the broader categories of educational purpose and about the interconnections among goals. That is, how do institutional goals, course goals and the goals of particular assignment fit together? Only when teachers are required to articulate their priorities among competing goals and the connections among goals can they clearly address the question of what sorts of criticism will be most useful.

Even if it is possible to have several complementary goals for education as a whole and for a course, when it gets down to a specific performance assignment, we are virtually forced to set some priorities. This occurs in a gross way, I think, when most teachers use some sort of warm up assignment that has a clear goal of getting students to feel comfortable. Criticism of these speeches is almost universally brief, supportive, positive, global. (It helps that such speeches are usually ungraded or given a token weighting.) As courses go along, students are expected to meet multiple (sometimes incompatible) goals in every speech and teachers are challenged as to which successes and failures to comment upon. Several difficult questions arise. Given my *primary* goals for higher education and my *primary* goals for this course, what goals should I realistically set for a series of assignments? What experiences do students need to have immediately and which can wait until later in the course or even later in life? Which assignments need to be done in the context of a formal audience setting and which can be done in a conference or workshop setting? What kinds of comments should be shared publicly and what should be transmitted privately? The kind of goal analysis referred to above can bring some clarity to the consideration of these questions.

Consider the example of the student who wondered why a stated thesis sentence was necessary in a speech that "worked" without one. Perhaps that course was taught by Professor A who sees education mainly as intellectual skill development, and further is comfortable with the selection of formalism as the course goal most likely to develop those skills. Her priority is to provide students with a set of intellectual building blocks and communicative tools. She reasons that these component skills can later be deployed rhetorically for ends such as advancing a career or transforming a society. This completely justifiable goal structure, if consciously identified and articulated, would nonetheless almost force the teacher to reconceptualize the student performances as drills or exercises. There is no pretense that class members are actual audience members to be persuaded. They are fellow learners who can assist in monitoring mastery of the component skills using the kinds of checklists and categories that accompany formalist approaches to invention. If Professor A is clear enough about this goal for a particular assignment, or class experience, or entire course, then her students will recognize the skill practice schema which they have encountered throughout their lives as learners. ("These are the pregame drills not the actual competition." Or, "we need to practice the musical scales before writing a symphony.") Her critical comments would center around how well a speech met preset criteria. Her students would probably receive public oral feedback on how they met those criteria and she would reinforce the basic principles of speaking so that all her students could transfer them to more realistic situations later. The fact that a student expressed his or her inner self or moved the audience would not be important in this setting. Just as the near universal "warm-up" assignment generally subordinates issues of structure to the goal of helping each student find a public voice, so most of Professor A's course assignments would foreground formalist goals at the expense of other goals.

We could imagine another instructor, Professor B, who has nearly opposite prioritization of course goals. She might believe that the most important educational goal is to prepare students to criticize and transform their world. Perhaps she sees a speech class fitting into that goal through taking a primarily expressive orientation with a secondary mimetic focus. Her goal would be for students to find their own voices, to recognize their unique way of seeing the world and to feel empowered enough to speak from their inner experience and in their own idiom. Incidentally, she might also want them to master the tools of critical thinking and to discover the "real truth" about our social institutions. In this class, the things that need to be achieved first have to do with building confidence and discovering truth. The formalist refinements, this teacher assumes, will come later when the right to speak and the need to speak are fully internalized. Her class might be expected to make use of small support groups to develop confidence in one's expression of ideas, but there would also be times to speak to a large group to provide experience with the kind of "publics" one must address in order to transform society. It follows that criticism in this class will be directed toward helping students find out what they really believe and in supporting them when they express themselves courageously. Much of the post-speech discussion will be directed toward the content of the speeches in an effort to test the validity of ideas. Probably very little classroom criticism will be related to formalistic considerations such as outlining, transitions, or the use of standard academic speech codes.

I could go on to Professors C, D, E and F who embodied various combinations of overall goals for higher education and different opinions of how speech communication best enabled those goals. Of course, each professor would have a slightly differing prioritization of the secondary and tertiary goals of instruction. My point here is not to try to describe every possible course orientation, but to make the point that we cannot gauge the effectiveness of decisions made about classroom criticism without some explicit identification of goals.

WHAT DO OUR CRITIQUES REVEAL ABOUT HOW WE SEE THE TEACHER'S ROLE?

A great deal of the controversy over the proper timing, mode and phrasing of criticism can be understood in terms of the multiple and contradictory roles that teachers must play. While teachers of every subject struggle with intra-role conflicts, communication teachers seem to face an unusual set of problems. Some of these are identified by Weaver and Cotrell (1989) who identify five common tensions that basic course instructors face. In communication performance courses particularly, we are often torn between our desire to be supportive of students who place their fragile egos on the line each time they speak and our desire to be honest, rigorous and/or challenging. To supplement the understandings of these role conflicts drawn from my own experiences as a teacher and my observations as a course director, I conducted another round of informal discourse analysis of the same sample of speech critiques. Again, instead of looking at the content dimensions of the statements I read them as a research text attempting to decide what sort of role relationship between teacher and student was implied by each comment. The majority of comments fell into three categories that I have labeled the *coach*, the *judge* and the *articulate audience member*. These titles are fairly self explanatory. The following examples should illustrate how these three roles may be inferred from the nature of a teacher's critical discourse. Where the coach would say "try to find ways to bring the technical terms into common vocabulary," and the judge would say "failed to define terms adequately," the articulate audience member might say, "I was with you through your introduction but when you began talking about UFRG's and AAC's, I kept trying to figure out what you meant. After a while I decided that UFRG's must be some sort of grant, but I didn't have a clue what AAC's were."

When a teacher acts as a coach, she or he is telling a student what to do, making suggestions, demonstrating alternatives. When a teacher acts as a judge, she or he is comparing the students' work to some established standards. In the language of educational evaluation, the criticism and comments received from a coach constitute formative evaluation; the comments of a judge exist to justify and explain a summative evaluation. The tension between these two roles is most pronounced when I find myself in the classroom trying to grade a speech that I have seen develop through several drafts of an outline or heard practiced in my office. (Sometimes a student who received a low grade from the judge confronts the coach in anger, saying, "why didn't you tell me what I was supposed to do?") The third role that I have identified — the articulate audience member — does not seem to be in such direct conflict with the other two. This person merely gives a self-reflective account of how the presentation affected her or him. The modifier "articulate" is an essential part of this instructional role. It is assumed that because instructors are trained observers of rhetorical events, equipped with analytic frameworks and rich vocabularies, that their conscious commentaries will be more instructive than those from typical audience members. Despite the expertise that would normally be reflected in an experienced critic's comments, the comments of a teacher in this role are less privileged, or at least more contestable, than those of either the coach or the judge. In the final analysis, all comments are subjective reports. The articulate audience member, however, formulates comments in a way that acknowledges this fact that typically remains concealed.

WHAT DO OUR CRITIQUES REVEAL ABOUT HOW WE SEE THEIR COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTION?

Even when a teacher has thought about the goals of instruction and has conceptualized the teaching role, is it still not possible to make decisions about critical practice without having a set of categories that capture the *purposive* nature of critical acts. In contrast to the earlier research that asked *what is being said* in speech critiques, I am proposing that we now ask a question reflective of a great deal of contemporary communication theory: *What is getting done?* When we respond to student performances, what are we up to? What function do we see our comments serving? Barnes (1990) drew on Speech Acts theory in her analysis of the comments teachers make on student's written compositions. She identified directives, designed to get the student to do something, and verdictives, speech acts that provide an evaluation of something (159). The two subcategories of the former were editives and revisionals. Praise, dispraise and grades comprise the verdictive acts. I suspect that we would find similar — but not identical — speech acts implicit in teachers' critiques of oral communication.

Even without applying a sophisticated analytical schema or attempting to find exhaustive categories, it can be instructive for oral communication instructors to strip transcribed critical comments down to grammatical kernels. Consider these two comments: "Stop shifting back and forth," and "Perhaps try to be just a little clearer in introducing your sources and explaining where all of those wonderful statistics come from." Despite all the differences in content and tone, both are commands: You do X. Other comments serve to judge or classify: A is B. ("Your introduction was wonderful!" or "Your articulation seemed a bit slurred at times.") Teachers' comments also describe, entreat, make threats or promises and serve a number of other apparent functions. Moving from an examination of these underlying imperative, declaratory or interrogative thrusts of comments to their actual phrasing shows the functional nature of speech style. Why does a teacher go to the trouble of saying "it seems to me that you were just a little fast and perhaps you might consider slowing down a bit at times" instead of "You're too fast. Slow down"? Presumably, the words that qualify or soften the basic message serve relational functions such as saving face or building solidarity (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

For the purposes of reflection or training, the main goal of analyzing critiques is to examine an artifact of one's own teaching practice in order to gain some critical distance. Any of a number of frameworks may be loosely applied to provide an answer to the question: If I did not know the person who wrote this, what could I reasonably assume about his or her goals for teaching, perceived role as an oral communication instructor, and beliefs about the communicative functions of speech comments? A staff meeting or training session could use a set of questions like those in the Table 1 to guide such a discussion.

Table 1
Worksheet for Analyzing Speech Critiques as Discourse

What is the content of this critique?

Which comments are about content? Delivery?
Which comments ar positive? Negative?
Which are phrased personally? Impersonally?
Which are atomistic? Holistic?

What goals for speaking are implied by this critique?

Which comments suggest a rhetorical orientation?
Which comments suggest an expressive orientation?
Which comments suggest a mimetic orientation?
Which comments suggest a formalist orientation?

What instructional role is implied by this critique?

Which comments suggest the teacher as coach?
Which comments suggest the teacher as judge?
Which comments suggest the teacher as articulate audience member?

What communicative function is implied by this critique?

Which comments give orders, suggestions, advice?
Which comments report judgments?
Which comments report reactions?
Which comments include language that seems to serve a relational purpose that goes beyond the referential meaning of the comment?

Questions for discussion:

1. Were there features of your critiques identified though this analysis that surprised you?
2. Are there any mixed messages or contradictions you may be sending in this critique?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having one clear educational goal, instructional role and communicative function as a critic in an oral communication class?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a variety of educational goals, instructional roles and communicative functions as a critic in an oral communication class?

For communication researchers, however, the analysis of critiques as texts serves only as a first step. A fuller understanding of criticism in oral performance classes requires us to link the features of discourse to the various educational goals, instructional roles and communicative functions. Observing how teachers select from among the types of speech acts and how they appear to assume the three roles could provide a fairly sophisticated framework for analysis of teachers' critiques. Combining these categories with the former static categories of content/delivery, positive/negative, atomistic/holistic and personal/impersonal raises the possibility that teachers do have reasons for selecting different kinds of messages to meet different specific goals. A teacher may be more likely to use a suggestion than a command when dealing with a negative aspect of delivery. The role of judge may be more appropriate than the role of coach in making a final holistic statement about a speech that will not be repeated. Certain of these speech acts may be more likely to appear in written than in oral criticism, and politeness forms might be more evident in public than private settings.

WHAT DO OUR CRITIQUES SEEM TO TELL STUDENTS TO DO?

The foregoing recommendations to view critical comments as purposive speech acts that reflect *teachers'* assumptions about their roles necessarily focus on the intent behind classroom criticism. My final suggestions remind us that we should also situate our critical practice in an understanding of the *students'* perceptions of comments.[4] What do they think our criticism is doing and how are they supposed to make sense of it? Such a shift in perspective moves us from a consideration of intent to an analysis of communicative effect, or, in speech acts language, from an assessment of the illocutionary force of critical statements to an examination of their perlocutionary force. Once again, the insights that I have to offer on this issue come from teachers of composition.

Sommers exposes a set of problems that composition teachers seem to discuss widely, but that we rarely address in speech communication classes (1982). Based on her review of English teachers' comments on papers she identified two major problems:

(1) Teachers' comments can take students' attention away from their own purposes in writing a particular text and focus attention on the teachers' purpose in commenting (149).

(2) Most teachers' comments are not text-specific and could be interchanged, rubber-stamped, from text to text (152).

She observes that teachers appropriate students' writing and make it their own by editing it so that students give up their ownership and just say "tell me how to change it so you like it." Worse yet, students do not know how to go about changing the text because of the conflicting messages they receive. Illustrating this problem with an example of a specific student paper, she notes that the teacher's interlinear comments ask for quite specific editing at the sentence level, yet the marginal comments suggest that there are serious problems with the basic arguments. Why would a student want to polish the language of something that is about to be substantially re-drafted?

> These different signals given to students, to edit and develop, to condense and elaborate, represent also the failure of teachers' comments to direct genuine revision of the text as a whole . . . . Moreover, the comments are worded in such a way that it is difficult for students to know what is the most important problem in the text and what problems are of lesser importance. No scale of importance is given to the student with the result that a comment about spelling or a comment about an awkward sentence is given weight equal to a comment about organization or logic . . . . The comments encourage students to believe that their first drafts are finished drafts, not invention drafts, and that all

> they need to do is patch and polish their writing . . . . The processes of revising, editing, and proofreading are collapsed and reduced to a single trivial activity . . . (151).

The problem that Sommers is addressing is one that we can surely apply to our own responses to assignments. But beyond that, I am certain that in classes involving oral performance, many of our critiques are just as confusing to the student. When we comment for instance on the fact that a student lacked evidence to support a certain point, we may be saying a number of things. Maybe, (as coach) we are suggesting that the student go find more evidence for a later presentation of the same speech. Maybe, (as judge) we are warning this student that in the future on other topics it would be a good idea to do more research so you don't blow it like you did here. Possibly we are not really making a comment to help the present speaker at all but are giving a mini-lecture to the rest of the class on the importance of evidence, using that student as a case study. Whether a teacher intends critical comments to function as a verdictive or a directive, for example, is ultimately less important than the *student's* feelings, thoughts or actions that actually result from the communication. (See Gaines, 1979, for a useful schema for classifying perlocutionary acts.)

Both Sommers and Fulkerson indicate that student writers are frequently confused by mixed messages they receive from their instructors' comments. If student speakers are experiencing similar confusion, we need to discover ways to eliminate inconsistencies and to clarify priorities among diverse comments. Koch and Brazil's (1978) list of priorities for diagnosing student writing begins with global concerns such as unity, focus and coherence. It then moves to structural concerns of paragraphs and sentences. Only when these serious issues are resolved do teachers address writing errors, mechanics, usage, and dialect features. A similar consciousness of our priorities for student oral presentations (again, obtainable only through extended reflection and dialogue about purpose) could guide an instructor or a department in thinking about how best to conduct classroom criticism. Our checklists or random stream of consciousness notes to students frequently lack a sense of the relative importance of our comments. When our goals are clearer, perhaps we can communicate more explicitly about what students should do first and what they should do later, which comments relate to the essential features of oral composition and which are minor points of polishing or refining the presentation.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CRITICAL PRACTICE AND COURSE STRUCTURE

These suggestions to read our own critiques as texts reflect the importance of basing decisions about speech criticism on a clear understanding of course goals. We need to talk to others in our educational communities about how we see our mission — as a profession, as campus colleagues, as departmental faculties, and as instructors of a certain course. We also need to build a research base to understand the effects of various critical practice in terms of the goals that we set for ourselves. That research base cannot be limited to studies of how different content features of speech criticism relate to certain static teacher and student characteristics. Situated inquiries using methods drawn from discourse analysis and classroom ethnography must be designed to see how the the process of classroom criticism is given meaning by the participants in the event.

The results of the kinds of discussions and of the sustained inquiry recommended here will almost inevitably lead us to a re-examination of the structure of our performance courses. It seems, for example, that any one of the general course orientations I have borrowed from Fulkerson

— rhetorical, expressive, mimetic or formalistic — would require much more formative evaluation and less summative evaluation that the typical speech class format provides. At Basic Course Conferences for years one refrain has been that there is no pedagogical justification for the widespread model of having twenty-five students sit through twenty-four other speeches, give one speech, receive feedback on it, and then move on to a completely different assignment. Such a scandalous waste of time would never be tolerated in organizational settings where presentation skills are being taught. Everything we know about skill development supports the value of frequent trials with extensive formative feedback. Our counterparts in English work with numerous drafts and revisions, using peer writing groups and individual conferences with the instructor. We are constrained by academic schedules and inflexible space and by the fact that assembling some sort of fresh audience for subsequent "drafts" of speeches is much more complicated than just re-reading student papers. Still we have not been imaginative in our use of peer support groups and practice teams, in using mini-audiences (Dubner & Mills, 1984) or even in using videotaping (which all too often is relied upon to reflect on a speech already given rather than to prepare for upcoming speeches).

At the same time, I am not as critical as I used to be of the practice of keeping our classes intact for much of their interaction. Turning classes into skills workshops or speech labs modeled after corporate training programs comes at a price. That price is the further privatization of learning at a time when there are virtually no public forums for communal discussion to occur. Reclaiming neglected insights from John Dewey, Greene (1988) and Giroux (1988) remind us of the important potential of schools in opening public spaces for communication. I believe that the public speaking classroom can be a site for empowering students to move beyond their own narrow discourse communities and to expand their sense of the possibility of collective action.

This essay has argued that the recurrent discussions of the mechanics of classroom critical practice need to be situated in a broader discussion of goals and priorities. Goal identification necessarily requires dialogue about educational values. As with so many issues in education, the questions of classroom criticism need to move out of the arena of technique and into the arena of reflection on purpose. The process of reflection can be aided, though, by analyzing our present discourse in classroom critiques to reveal the implicit assumptions about goals, roles and functions. When we really understand and agree upon "why," we will open up countless new possibilities for "how."

NOTES

[1] Two fine summaries of this work are Book (1985) and Rubin (1990).

[2] Greenberg's analysis of basic course manuals (1989) exposes considerable lack of awareness of the ethical and philosophical assumptions undergirding our courses and states that for her, this absence of explicit discussion of values is more worrisome than the contradictory nature of the rhetoric of the manuals.

[3] In 1990, Fulkerson revisits his earlier classification of the goals and states that teachers of composition studies have virtually achieved consensus on rhetorical perspective for their basic courses, although they are deeply divided over the pedagogical means to achieve their goal.

[4] There has been research dealing with student perceptions of the helpfulness of certain critiques (Book & Simmons, 1980; Young, 1974) as with student characteristics influencing their interpretation of critiques (Booth-Butterfield, 1989).

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Classroom Interventions for Reducing Public Speaking Anxiety

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An increasing number of studies have focused on classroom remediation of apprehension and state anxiety associated with public speaking situations. Several explanations have been offered for the shift to in-class treatment as opposed to specialized out-of-class laboratory treatment of communication apprehension (CA). As Hoffmann and Sprague (1982) report, fewer than ten percent of U.S. colleges and universities currently offer specialized laboratory treatment programs. Furthermore, most instructors, as Booth-Butterfield (1988a) suggests, have neither the time nor the resources necessary to administer specialized treatment programs. Phillips (1982) also has provided a rationale for in-class treatment. He suggested that instructors of public speaking classes have a variety of methods for treating anxiety and that attention should be directed toward developing a compendia of strategies which work under real classroom conditions.

The case for in-class treatment is further bolstered in findings for the effects of CA on classroom performance. McCroskey, Ralph, and Barrick (1970), in a study assessing the effectiveness of desensitization in reducing CA level, observed anecdotally that several of the high CA's who enrolled in a public speaking course actually withdrew from the class prior to their first required speech. Barnes (1976) also reports that high CA's often complete their public speaking course feeling more apprehensive about public speaking than when they entered the course. These studies support the importance of in-class attempts to reduce anxiety level of high CA's as early as possible in the term especially the anxiety level of high CA's who may be required to complete a course in public speaking as part of their general education requirements.

Several anxiety-reduction methods have been attempted in the public speaking classroom. These range from the typical model speech and videotaping of speeches to the use of interpersonal exercises designed to create a more comfortable learning environment for the anxious speaker. Beatty (1988) found that audiotaping of "successful" model speeches actually increased high CA's anxiety level when they viewed the models prior to their assigned speech. Several studies have examined the effects of delivery skills training on anxiety reduction; however, most of these studies have done so through out-of-class laboratory programs. A study by Neer and Kircher (1989) examined the effects of an in-class delivery skills instructional unit on anxiety reduction. The principal was that the administration of the delivery instructional unit resulted in lower CA scores at the end of the course when the delivery training was provided to students prior to their first speech. Higher CA scores were observed when the training was completed after the first required public speaking assignment.

The Beatty and the Neer and Kircher studies are important because they suggest that instructors may incorporate model speeches within their instructional units to assist students in preparing their own speeches. This practice may prove useful for most students. High CA students, however, may interpret model speeches as examples they cannot perform, especially if they have little or no previous speaking experience. Instructors also may de-emphasize delivery mechanics until after the initial speech on the assumption that delivery instruction, if provided prior to the initial speech, may further increase anxiety by focusing attention on delivery rather than the speech content. Yet, neither of these assumptions has proven true. Thus, additional research seems appropriate on whether other often-used instructional interventions actually function as intended.

Another line of research has shifted the focus from public speaking interventions to classroom interventions designed to create a more comfortable classroom context for learning fundamental public speaking principles. Connell and Borden (1987) observed a positive effect for self-disclosure on reduction of trait CA. Their study manipulated disclosure (i.e., small group team meetings once a week for six weeks) within a larger instructional unit that also included cognitive restructuring and desensitization. Thus, the effects of self-disclosure are embedded within a larger instructional context. The use of small groups represents one attempt to manipulate acquaintance-level or familiarity among students. Acquaintance-level is one of several situational factors originally identified by Buss (1980) and McCroskey (1984) as influencing state anxiety level of high CA's.

Booth-Butterfield (1988a) manipulated acquaintance-level and found that high CA's reported lower state anxiety reactions when working with friends than when working with strangers. Booth-Butterfield recommends that instructors permit students to work together in order to increase their familiarity with one another. Booth-Butterfield (1986) manipulated additional situational factors and observed that high CA's demonstrated fewer behavioral disruptions when performing getting-acquainted exercises involving low evaluation potential. High evaluation potential was manipulated by informing students that the videotaped exercise would be reviewed by departmental faculty as potential examples of dyadic communication in other courses. The study also found that high CA's exhibited fewer disruptions with the highly-structured videotaping (i.e., clearly set instructions on how to conduct the getting-acquainted encounter) than with the low-structured videotaping in which students were permitted more freedom in conducting the encounter.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

Findings from these studies demonstrate that instructors are able to offer instructional interventions that mediate state anxiety. The present study therefore examined several additional interventions designed to moderate situational factors contributing to state anxiety. The interventions were tested by creating cover stories similar to the Booth-Butterfield (1988a) study that described various instructional formats through which the first required speech in the introductory public speaking course would be processed. Respondents did not participate in actual in-class manipulations but were instructed to rate their perceived state anxiety if their first speech was structured in the manner described within each cover story.

The primary purpose of the study was to generate a list of interventions that instructors may incorporate in the classroom with confidence. Support for perceptual responses will eventually require that manipulations actually be performed within the classroom. However, an extremely large number of interventions could be tested for in-class treatment. Thus, the process of selecting interventions may best be served by first narrowing the list to those that have been found to affect anxiety levels.

The instructional interventions were derived through prior testing of self-reports of classroom interventions they preferred instructors employ to reduce their anxiety with public speaking. A series of studies by Neer and his colleagues (Neer, Hudson, & Warren, 1982a; Neer & Kircher, 1984) reveal that CA's report increased comfort with each intervention tested. However. their studies failed to assess anxiety reactions and did not examine the interaction of the interventions on anxiety level.[1]

HYPOTHESES

Prior research examining the influence of situational factors supports these investigations. The hypotheses assert that manipulation of classroom situational factors will impact student anxiety level prior to the first required speech.

H1. All respondents, regardless of prior CA level, will report lower levels of state anxiety when public speaking is structured to reduce evaluation potential, audience size, task difficulty, stimulus duration, and ambiguity reduction and to increase acquaintance level in the classroom.

H2. High CA's will report higher levels of anxiety than low CA's when public speaking is structured to increase evaluation potential, audience size, task difficulty, and ambiguity reduction and to decrease acquaintance level in the classroom.

METHOD

Respondents

Respondents were 306 (Female = 60%, Age range = 17-33, Median = 19.2) undergraduates enrolled in the introductory public speaking course at a midsize, midwestern university during the 1988-1989 academic year. Respondents completed the CA measure and responded to the public speaking cover stories in randomized order. Order effects were not observed between that half of the sample completing the CA measure first and the other half of the sample who completed the CA measure after responding to the cover stories.

CA Measure

CA was measured with the Personal Report of Public Speaking Apprehension (PRPSA) (McCroskey, 1970). This form was selected because it measures exclusively public speaking CA. The Cronbach alpha estimate was .90. Descriptive statistics revealed a grand mean of 109.46 and standard deviation of 20.11.

Manipulations

Five public speaking situations were used to test situational factors. Each situation manipulated two situational factors. Thus, no situation simultaneously manipulated every factor. Instead, respondents read only one level each of two factors (low or high) within each situation. Immediately after reading the cover story, respondents rated their anxiety to that situation before proceeding to the next cover story. Each situation described a procedure for structuring either the preparation phases of a public speech or the actual presentation of the speech.[2]

Operationalization

Evaluation potential, as utilized in this study, assumes that being graded by classmates — although potentially anxiety arousing — should be less arousing than being graded by the instructor. Familiarity also is manipulated consistent with theoretical conceptualizations. That is, speaking on the last assigned speaking date may provide students with additional information for preparing their own speeches after observing the speeches of other students. Furthermore, speaking on the first assigned date also may increase conspicuousness or the perception of being the center of attention. That is, those speaking on the first day may feel more conspicuous because of increased audience attention and curiosity associated with the first round of speeches.

The evidence speech was defined as high task difficulty because it required statistical support for main points. The personal experience speech, on the other hand, represents low task difficulty in that the only form of proof required a personal experience or story to illustrate main points. The evidence; should be perceived as being more difficult to execute, especially with the requirement that statistical proof must meet the various tests of evidence or not be used in the speech. Changing stimulus duration should increase anticipated anxiety since speaking for ten minutes should increase both the perception of task difficulty (i.e., having sufficient information for a ten minute speech). McCroskey (1984) suggests that high CA's will talk for only as long as minimally required. Beatty (1986) demonstrated empirically that high CA's do, indeed, speak for shorter periods of time than low CA's, especially when their motivation level is at a minimum.

Audience size was tested on the assumption that as the number of audience observers increases so, too, does conspicuousness. On the other hand, as audience size decreases, the classroom may be perceived as being more informal by students. Providing speakers with an exact speaking order was defined as high ambiguity reduction because the random order may increase anticipation of being called to speak "on the spot" before the student is ready. An exact speaking order eliminates the anticipation and the guesswork associated with not knowing when one will actually have to speak. High CA students, already highly anxious about speaking, may be spared from experiencing additional anxiety if they know they will not be surprised when it is their time to speak.

Collectively, these interventions were selected because each represents a realistic method of structuring the initial public speaking assignment for students taking their first course in public speaking. For instance, it is not unusual to hear students say before the start of class on the day of their speech that they hope more students than usual will miss class that day. And, when explaining the guidelines for the initial speech assignment, it is typical to hear students ask if they must speak for the entire time limit. These interventions were selected because each may be unobtrusively employed in the classroom without focusing special attention on high CA's and thereby run the risk of further increasing their level of conspicuousness.

Dependent Measures

State anxiety reactions to each of the five situations were measured with the five-item short version (O'Neil, Spielberger, & Hansen, 1969) of the STAI (A-State) anxiety scale (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970). The items are: I feel tense, I feel calm, I feel relaxed, I feel at ease, and I feel jittery. The scale was administered after respondents read each of the five situations. Ratings are recorded on four-point scales and summed to create a composite score ranging from five (low anxiety) to twenty (high anxiety). Alpha estimates ranged from .86 to .89 across the five situations.

Pilot Testing

The five situations were pilot tested on a sample of 46 students enrolled in other sections of the introductory course. Pilot testing was conducted to confirm that the interventions reflected the situational factors they were designed to manipulate. Respondents rated both levels of all manipulations on 7-point bipolar scales. All manipulations were confirmed through overall mean ratings. For instance, evaluation potential (i.e., I feel the instructor will evaluate me more difficulty than students) was rated higher when the cover story stated that the instructor would be present to grade the first speech (6.00) that when only the class would be present to grade the speech (4.22). Also stimulus duration, was rated as being more anxiety arousing (i.e., I would feel more anxious speaking for ten minutes than I would speaking for five minutes) with the ten minute speech (6.12) than the five minute speech (4.48). Remaining manipulations yielded significant mean differences between .91 and 1.46.

The manipulations were also validated through tests of mean difference between low and high CA's. For instance, ambiguity reduction yielded the following statistics: ($F = 9.65$, Low CA = 4.50, High CA = 6.64, $p < .006$). That is, high CA's felt they had less control and predictability over the situation when the instructor used a random speaking order over an exact order. Remaining manipulations also yielded significant mean differences ranging from 1.30 to 1.96. The only manipulations failing to yield significance were acquaintance level ($p < .07$) and familiarity ($p < .09$).[3]

Analysis

The five situations were analyzed separately through 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance designs: two levels of prior CA (low and high) were combined with the two levels of each intervention manipulated within each situation.[4] Separate ANOVA models were selected over a repeated measures design since each situation was manipulated differently than the other; thus, the independent variables changed from one situation to the next.

RESULTS

Apprehension revealed a significant main effect across all five situations. F-ratios ranged form 60.70 to 97.70 with mean differences between low and high CA's ranging from 4.24 to 7.05 across the five situations. These findings revealed that high CA's reported higher anxiety reactions to all five situations independent of the manipulated interventions.

Main effects also revealed that several of the interventions yielded ANOVA significance (see Table 1). These findings demonstrate that speaking before half the class aroused less anxiety than speaking before the entire class. The personal experience speech resulted in lower anxiety than the evidence speech. Speaking on the last day assigned to speeches aroused less anxiety than speaking on the first assigned date while a random speaking order and a speaking limit of five minutes resulted in lower self-reported anxiety than the exact order and the ten minute limit. Collectively, these findings indicate that select interventions reduce public speaking anxiety of students enrolled in a basic course regardless of their prior CA level.

Table 1
Effects of the Interventions on Anxiety-Reduction

Intervention	SS/MS	Means	eta^2	F	P
Audience Size:	96.69		.20	11.47	.001
Half		14.37			
Entire		15.90			
Speaking Order:	86.23		.17	8.88	.003
Random		13.97			
Exact		15.41			
Type of Speech	99.32		.29	10.34	.002
Personal		11.21			
Evidence		13.43			
Speaking Order:	111.61		.28	9.72	.002
First Day		14.46			
Last Day		12.06			
Speaking Limit:	64.61		.17	6.60	.010
5 Minutes		14.01			
10 Minutes		15.61			

While main effect significance for the interventions holds potentially useful information to the general structuring of the first required speech, it does not provide specific information regarding the effects of prior CA on state anxiety. Thus, of primary interest in this study is the interaction between CA level and the interventions.

Interaction effects were observed between CA level and two of the public speaking situations. Situation 1 (audience size x evaluation potential) yielded a significant two-way interaction effect between CA x audience size and between CA x evaluation potential. As results in Table 2 reveal, high CA's report lower anxiety if their first speech is delivered to only half the class and when the instructor is not present to grade the speech (see Table 2).

Table 2
ANOVA for CA x Interventions

	SS/MS	Submeans[1]	eta^2	F
CA x Audience Size (A)	33.79		.03	4.09**
low x entire class		13.26^{a}		
high x entire class		18.70^{abc}		
low x half class		12.63^{bcd}		
high x half class		16.07^{abcd}		
CA x Evaluation Potential (E)	41.84		.03	4.95*
low x instructor present		12.77^{a}		
high x instructor present		18.00^{abc}		
low x instructor not present		13.18^{bcd}		
high x instructor not present		16.53^{abcd}		
CA x A x E	10.56		.00	1.24

*$p < .03$
**$p < .05$

[1] Superscripts represent statistically significant paired comparisons (Scheffe method)

Interaction effects also approached significance with situation 4 (ambiguity reduction x stimulus duration). That is, low CA's reported lower anxiety with a random speaking order (Random = 10.87, Exact = 13.51) while high CA's reported similar levels of anxiety (Random = 17.00, Exact = 17.41) regardless whether a random or an exact speaking order was selected by the instructor (F = 3.16, eta-squared = .05, $p < .065$).

The findings demonstrate that F-values were larger for CA than the interventions. These findings prompted an examination of eta-squared coefficients for the raw score CA composite and the interventions. The raw score CA composite was first correlated with the five anxiety composites. Multiple correlation and r-squared values for the five situations were: (1) MR = .62, r-squared = .38, (2) MR = .58, r-squared = .34, (3) MR = .55, r-squared = .30, (4) MR = .60, r-squared = .36, and (5) MR = .64, r-squared = .41. These findings compare favorably to other studies which report that CA accounts for between .44 and 47 percent of the variance in anxiety scores (Booth-Butterfield, 1988a; McCroskey, 1984).[5]

Adjusted eta-squared coefficients for the interventions (adjusted for CA level) were next examined. Several of the interventions accounted for a substantial portion of variance in anxiety scores. Ambiguity reduction (speaking order) accounted for nearly as much variance (.21) as CA (.30) in situation 3. Situations 1 and 2 reveal that CA accounted for slightly one-third more variance than the interventions while CA also accounted for nearly three times as much variance as the interventions in situation 5 (41 vs. 15 percent). However, situation 4 reveals that the combined variance of the two interventions nearly equals that of CA (36 vs. 33 percent).

DISCUSSION

Research findings in this study offer partial support for both hypotheses. First, main effect significance was observed for half of the interventions, independent on CA level, while only two situational factors failed to yield significance (i.e., familiarity and acquaintance level). On the other hand, only two of the interventions interacted with CA to influence state anxiety. These findings provide stronger support for H1 than for H2. It should be pointed out that the interventions do not eliminate anxiety arousal of either low or high CA's. Instead, the interventions only moderate anxiety arousal. Since the STAI ceiling score is 20 and the floor score is 5, the interventions aroused moderate for low CA's and generally high anxiety for high CA's. Interaction of CA with the interventions demonstrated little support for H2 with the following qualification: the audience size x evaluation potential manipulation functioned as predicted in reducing state anxiety level from extremely high to moderately high for high CA's and from moderately high to moderate anxiety for low CA's.

Research findings demonstrate that the interventions provide potentially useful information on ways to structure the initial public speaking assignment to reduce the anxiety level of beginning speakers, including both low and high CA students. Situation 1 in particular reveals that anxiety is reduced when the instructor does not grade the first speech and high CA's deliver the speech to only half the class. This finding could easily be incorporated into the classroom with minimal disruption to traditional methods of structuring speaking assignments. For instance, the instructor could divide the class in half to deliver a trial run of the first speech. Potential grade inflation via student grading may be minimized by assigning the trial run fewer points than other speech assignments. The instructor may exercise the option of not assigning a point value to the trial run speech. However, as Booth-Butterfield (1988a) has demonstrated, performance motivation and anxiety-reduction are positively influenced by reward value (i.e., number of points awarded) associated with an assignment. Thus, awarding the trial run a small percentage of points may reduce anxiety by increasing performance motivation.

Findings for the remaining interventions failed to consistently yield significant interaction effects between CA and the interventions. It should be noted that acquaintance level did not reduce anxiety as other studies report. It is possible that high CA's do not become better acquainted with classmates. It is possible high CA's experienced increased evaluation potential because they perceived the interaction as centered on public speaking exercises. Thus, getting-acquainted activities appear to reduce anxiety when interaction is informal and non-task centered (Booth-Butterfield, 1986). Booth-Butterfield (1988a) reports anxiety reduction is a function of informal class interaction. It therefore appears that the small group and dyadic "speech consultant teams" were not perceived as being informal and interpersonal- or acquaintance-centered but as task-centered activities focusing on behavioral rehearsal or feedback on speech performance.

One further qualification to findings in this study should be noted. Beatty and his colleagues (Beatty, Balfantz, & Kuwabara, 1989; Beatty & Friedland, 1990) recently demonstrated that situational factors function in a dispositional manner. Their findings indicated that all situational factors, with the exception of novelty, significantly correlated with two performance evaluations separated by a five-week time frame. The authors argue that if these factors were situational in nature they should not have correlated with the second performance evaluation. However, it could also be argued that if the conditions that trigger situational anxiety are not removed from the classroom, then repeated performances will provoke similar anxiety reactions until effective interventions are implemented to moderate these conditions. For example, it should not be assumed that students will increase their acquaintance level simply by sitting in the same class of students for a term. Indeed, this study suggests that acquaintance level in increased by interpersonal-based interaction rather than task-centered interaction. Using task-centered interaction throughout a semester without attempting interpersonal-centered interaction may not increase acquaintance level.

The next step to assessing the instructional value of these and other interventions is determining whether they impact speech performance grades. Few studies have established that anxiety-reduction improves initial speech performance as well as subsequent performance. The issue is particularly important in light of Phillips' claim that some degree of anxiety is useful because it functions as a powerful source of motivation for performance (1977). Booth-Butterfield's (1988a) recent manipulation of situational factors provides support for Phillips' claim. Booth-Butterfield demonstrated that assigning a higher grade percentage to an assignment reduced anxiety associated with dyadic interaction. Neer and Hudson (1981) reported a similar effect in a study on classroom apprehension. They reported that high CA's felt more comfortable leading a small group discussion than leading a discussion before the entire class. However, when asked to rate satisfaction level with their performance, high CA's rated their performance more positively than high CA's who were only required to lead the small group discussion. The source of motivation in this study was audience size that presumably aroused more anxiety.

Communication educators should continue to investigate which of their methods work as well as why some methods work better than others to reduce anxiety. Answering this question may be better addressed by developing criteria other than speech performance for determining the effectiveness of instructional interventions. Booth-Butterfield (1989b) has demonstrated that high CA's recall less information from lectures when placed in anxiety-arousing classroom situations (i.e., when the class is informed that dyadic interaction with a stranger will take place after the lecture). Thus, additional criteria, such as cognitive functioning, may need to be established to assist instructors in identifying interventions that affect learning outcomes other than speech performance.

This study demonstrated that select instructional interventions decrease the perceived state anxiety of both low and high CA students enrolled in the basic public speaking course. One of the most important observations to emerge from this study is that often-used interventions do not consistently moderate situational causes of anxiety. Select findings also appear to confirm the dispositional nature of situational factors. Understanding how these factors are related not only to anxiety reduction but to communication outcomes other than speech performance may provide additional information useful to moderating CA. And, on a pedagogical level, instructors may begin to identify those interventions that help guard against the tendency for some CA's to drop their public speaking course prior to their first speech and prevent other high CA's from leaving the course even more apprehensive about public speaking.

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AUTHOR NOTES

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NOTES

[1] Several interventions, excluding those tested in this study, that positively influenced high CA's perceived comfort level include: (1) not having to follow an excellent speech, (2) not being graded on delivery mechanics for the first speech, (3) having the instructor approve the student's speech outline before speaking, (4) having the first speech consist of a small group report to the class, and (5) not videotaping the first speech. On the other hand, high CA's reported increased discomfort with the following interventions, some of which may be routinely used as anxiety-reductions techniques: (1) individual conferences with the instructor prior to the first speech, (2) viewing sample speeches before speaking, and (3) lectures and exercises on speech organization. Over fifty instructional interventions have been tested across these three studies.

[2] **Situation 1** (audience size x evaluation potential): The cover story informed respondents that their first speech would be delivered to only half the class (low or small size) or to the entire class of 25 students (high or large audience). In addition to manipulating audience size, evaluation potential

was manipulated by describing the first speech as being delivered with the instructor either present (high) or absent (low) during the speech. That is, either the instructor or the class would grade the speech.

Situation 2 (acquaintance level x task difficulty): Acquaintance level was manipulated by informing respondents that they would be placed within the same (high) or different (low) small group of their peers once a week over a three-week period to take part in public speaking exercises and to practice their speech prior to presenting their speech in class. Task difficulty was manipulated by requiring students to deliver either a personal experience speech (low) or an evidence speech (high) in which they would be required to statistically document the main points of the speech.

Situation 3 (acquaintance level x familiarity): Two levels of acquaintance level were manipulated by informing respondents to assume that they would be placed within dyads (high) or small groups (low) to practice their speech one week prior to presenting their first speaking assignment in class. Familiarity was manipulated by informing students they would be required to deliver their first speech on either the first (low) or the last (high) assigned speaking date.

Situation 4 (ambiguity reduction x stimulus duration): Ambiguity reduction was manipulated by informing respondents to imagine that on the date they had been assigned to speak the instructor would either call on students at random to speak (low) or would provide the class with an exact speaking order before starting speeches that day (high). Stimulus duration was manipulated by requiring either a ten minute (high) or a five minute speech.

Situation 5 (stimulus duration x audience size): Stimulus duration was manipulated similarly to situation 4 and audience size was manipulated consistent with situation 1.

[3] All manipulations also yielded significant correlations with CA when the PRPSA raw score was correlated with

ratings for each of the interventions. Further information on the manipulations is available from the authors.

[4] A 25/25 split for low and high CA was selected for analysis in order to ensure adequate cell sizes of 75 and 74, respectively. This split differs from the conventional assignment of CA levels based on mean deviation. Thus, descriminant analysis was conducted in order to ensure the reliability of these range levels. Univariate F-ratios ranged from 19.61 to 439.61 for all 34 PRPSA items with half yielding F-ratios larger than 100 and only 20 percent under 30.0. The analysis resulted in a single significant function (Eigenvalue = 11/94, %Variance = 100, Rc = .960, Wilks' = .077, $p < .001$) that correctly classified 100 percent of low and high CA's within their respective prior membership groups. Group centroids of -3.54 and 3.32 further reveal the reliability of the 25 percent breakpoint used in assigning PRPSA raw scores to the low high CA groups. Moderate CA's were eliminated from analysis on a research recommendation by McCroskey (1984) whose data demonstrates that the inclusion of moderate CA scores often masks significant differences between low and high CA's. McCroskey therefore suggests that CA be conceptualized as a categorical variable rather than a continuous variable.

[5] When all 306 respondents were included in the regression model, multiple correlations were reduced across all five situations (i.e., .49, .45, .51, .52, and .51). These results confirm McCroskey's (1984) suggestion that the inclusion of moderate CA's deflates the statistical significance between low and high CA's.

Measurement of Communication Motivation in Public Speaking: An Exploratory Study and Scale Development Based on Expectancy Theory

Edwin J. Dawson
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Researchers have long been interested in factors which influence people's propensity for communication. Communication researchers have examined communication apprehension, willingness to communicate, shyness, reticence and stage fright to assess the cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses to communication situations in an effort to explain and predict a person's predilection toward communication. Recently, some communication scholars have begun an investigation into the role motivation plays in human communication. However, scant research has investigated the factors or dimensions which comprise a construct identifying a person's motivation to communicate.

Two decades of previous research have investigated the avoidance of communication as a psychological experience in which subjective anxiety is a perceived outcome within a situation. Communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1984; 1978; 1977) shyness (Zimbardo, 1977), social anxiety (Biglan, Glaser, & Dow, 1979), stagefright, and predisposition towards verbal behavior (Mortensen, Lustig, & Arntson, 1977), are constructs which are based on emotional or cognitive assumptions. Behavioral measures of communication avoidance such as unwillingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976), and reticence measures of overt patterns of behavior

(McCroskey, 1982). Researchers have also examined avoidance of various contexts such as writing apprehension (Daly & Miller, 1975), and singing apprehension (Andersen, Anderson & Garrison, 1978). The communication apprehension construct (CA) has been the most widely researched communication avoidance factor since its initial conception by McCroskey in 1970.

Some research has examined the approach dimension of motivation to communicate. Notably, the Willingness to Communicate construct or WTC (McCroskey & Baer, 1985) is an adaptation of the unwillingness to communicate construct. McCroskey (1985) concluded that even though communication apprehension may be the single best predictor of willingness to communicate, "there are other theoretical predictors that can have a substantial impact on willingness to communicate" (3). The willingness to communicate can also be considered as an "approach" component of overall motivation to communicate.

Some research has been conducted that more directly investigates motivation to communicate. Researchers have conceptualized and operationalized motivation from a needs gratification approach. Most communication motivation measures are adapted from other standardized personality scales or attempt to measure only global motivation tendencies such as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) (Giffin and Gilham, 1971). The use of the TAT and the TAQ and similar instruments that measure general achievement/failure traits is only inferentially and indirectly a measure of communication motivation. Rubin, Perse and Barbato (1988) developed an Interpersonal Communication Motives measure (ICM) which measured the reasons why people initiate conversations with others. Their measure was derived from the uses and gratifications perspectives of mass communication research (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974) and interpersonal needs research (Bennis, Schein, Steele & Berlew, 1968; Schultz, 1966). The

ICM scale seemed to be an accurate measurement of interpersonal motives from the conceptualization of need assessment and need gratification theories of motivation. The application of mass media variables seems to be an indirect measure of needs in interpersonal communication contexts and may miss important dimensions of the motivation construct unique to other communication contexts.

Beatty (1985) also suggested a link between motivation and communication apprehension. Beatty's research indicated that CA, motivation, and duration of speech correlated significantly. The three items which measured motivation (motivated-unmotivated; interested-uninterested; and involved-uninvolved) were an incomplete operationalization of the construct domain. The inferential and indirect manner with which communication motivation has been tested, and the dominance of need gratification research in this area, indicates that a different measure based on expectancy theory and designed to identify dimensions of the motivation construct may increase the understanding of an individual's motivation to communicate.

Most approaches to studying communication motivation and related constructs have focused on identifying approach *or* avoidance tendencies based on a need gratification approach. While this approach has potential uses, it seems inadequate to fully measure motivation resulting from the interplay of conflicting or compounding needs. For example, a highly anxious person may want to avoid communication, but a low anxious person does not necessarily seek to engage in communication. Conversely, a high CA person may still engage in communication if other approach tendencies outweigh the avoidance due to anxiety.

Research which examines such factors as communication apprehension, shyness, reticence and related constructs involve the analysis of specific communicative difficulties leading to the avoidance of communication. Albeit this direction of research has been useful in categorizing and labeling inadequacies, an expectancy based motivation construct of communication would allow for a multi-directional analysis of potential behavior. In short, a motivational construct will combine the forces of both avoidance and attainment of certain potential outcomes instead of separately measuring variables that restrict communication or that encourage communication.

The term motivation is viewed in reference to the tendency for the direction or selectivity of behavior to be "governed in some way by its relation to objectively definable consequences, and the tendency of behavior to persist until the end is attained" (Atkinson, 274). In any communication situation, there are consequences which a person wishes to attain (positive forces toward communication) and outcomes which the person wishes to avoid (negative forces away from communication). The balance of these positive and negative forces should be an indicator of the degree to which a person is motivated to perform or avoid communication. Two fundamental assumptions are central to the concept of motivation used in this study: 1) motivation consists of components referred to as force and direction (Duffy, 1957, Haire, 1964; Spence, 1958); 2) these components are comprised of learned and unlearned responses which are additive (Haire, 1964; Hull, 1943).

Haire (1964) argues that there are many forces that operate on a person, and the rate and direction of behavior are a complex resultant of these forces. Specifically, when two or more forces are playing out a particular goal related behavior "the rate of behavior is determined by the resultant of the two — the longer one minus the shorter one" (Haire, 165). Similarly, the interplay in direction of these forces moves a person towards or away from a particular behavior. Vroom (1964) introduced a similar motivational model for predicting the direction and intensity of behavior. He contends that an individual is faced with various alternative barriers and must choose the most satisfying outcome or valences. The relationship between these valences and the desired outcomes is called "instrumentality." The overall valence according to Vroom (1964) is "a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these outcomes" (17). The factors that determine behavior have an additive function, such that when summed, indicate the direction and rate of behavior.

By combining the multiplicative properties of the two motivational components (Hull, 1943) and the additive properties of the factors related to the direction a behavior may take, the formulation of a mathematical measurement of motivation is created. This formula for motivation has more recently been advanced as expectancy theory. Expectancy theory states that "the strength of the tendency for an individual to perform a particular act is function of (a) the strength with which he expects certain outcomes to be obtained from the act, times (b) the attractiveness to him of the expected outcomes" (Hackman & Porter, 248). Similar formulations have been posited by Fishbein (1963), Hackman (1968), and Fering (1953).

Motivation is viewed here as containing both approach and avoidance directions. The direction of motivation is dependent upon both the importance of the need and the perceived expectancy that the reward will be earned. Thus, a very important need that has a low likelihood of being fulfilled is of little motivating force; conversely, a reward that is likely to occur but which is perceived as having little value will not be a strong motivator.

In light of the aforementioned assumptions, this study will describe motivation as: the combination of three factors — (a) particular outcomes which the individual perceives as occurring as a result of a behavior; (b) the strength of expectancy of those outcomes; and (c) the valence or direction the behavior will take to either approach or avoid the outcome. This study will attempt to create a communication motivation measure based on expectancy theory which will account for the additive forces of a person's evaluation of positive and negative outcomes in combination with the force or importance of those outcomes.

Since a global measure of communication motivation is beyond the scope of this study, the public speaking situation will be used to generate potential outcomes and consequences of giving a public speech. In many colleges and universities, the public speaking course is the only exposure a student may get to communication. Since large numbers of students enroll in introductory public speaking courses, and since it is important to create a more complete understanding of the factors that affect these students, this study will use the public speaking situation to explore the new construct of communication motivation.

Since the motivational construct has been previously investigated using need gratification theory, it is important to explore the conceptual differences and similarities between Communication Motivation in Public Speaking based on expectancy theory and current measures of communication motives. Therefore, this study asks the following research questions:

1) What are the factor structure and reliability of a "communication motivation in public speaking" (CMPS) instrument which is based on expectancy theory?
2) What is the relationship between Communication Motivation in Public Speaking (CMPS) and the PRCA, WTC, and ICM?

MEASUREMENT

Communication anxiety (avoidance) was measured with the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24) (McCroskey, 1985). This instrument was designed to measure both trait and state communication apprehension in four contexts yielding four sub-scores: public speaking, meetings, small groups, and conversations. The reliability is consistently high, usually above .90, and the validity is well established in previous research (McCroskey, 1984).

A person's approach to communication was measured by the Willingness to Communicate (WTC) scale (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). This measure is based on the assumption that people exhibit a global willingness to approach communication (McCroskey, 1985). Respondents express the percentage of time (0 = never, to 100 = always) they would be willing to communicate with three types of people (strangers, acquaintances, friends) in four contexts (public speaking, meetings, groups and dyads). Previous internal reliability alpha estimates for the total WTC score was reported to be .92, with internal reliabilities for the subscores ranging from .65 to .76 (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Factor analysis indicated the scale is unidimensional, and construct and predictive validity were present as well (McCroskey, 1985).

Interpersonal motives were measured with the Interpersonal Communication Motives (ICM) scale (Rubin, Perse & Barbato, 1988). The instrument consists of 28, 5 point Likert-type items used to ascertain interpersonal communication motives on six factors: pleasure, affection, inclusion, escape, relaxation and control. The Cronbach alpha for the factors are: pleasure (.89), affection (.85), inclusion (.84), escape (.77), relaxation (.81), and control (.75). Scores were validated in conjunction with the PRCA (McCroskey, 1970) and the Global Communication Satisfaction Instrument (Hecht, 1978).

A new scale, based on expectancy theory, was developed that measured motivation specific to the public speaking context. The "Communication Motivation in Public Speaking" (CMPS) scale was developed in two separate studies. A pretest was used to generate possible scale items and to determine a preliminary factor structure of the items. The second study further refined the CMPS items to create a reliable measuring instrument to be used in the analysis of the research questions.

In the pretest, the initial pool of items were generated from students enrolled in introductory public speaking classes (n=30). An open ended questionnaire was used to generate potential positive and negative consequences and outcomes of presenting a public speech in class (Babbie, 1973). Students were asked to consider potential outcomes that might occur while preparing the speech, during the delivery of the speech, and after the speech. The items from the open-ended questionnaire that were similar in idea (e.g., good grade, good mark, good score) or which depicted different degrees of intensity of the same idea (e.g., very frightened, a little scared, anxious) were collapsed into a single item. Items mentioned less than three times were omitted (Hackman, 1969).

After the items were categorized, the CMPS items were given to communication faculty, graduate students and undergraduate students for further reduction. Refinements in wording, categorizing, and the addition of other items were made to reduce redundancy, improve clarity, and increase the domain of the motivation construct measured by the CMPS.

Forty items were retained for the pre-test form of the CMPS. Each outcome was written as two Likert-type scales. One scale indicated the perceived likelihood (expectancy) that the outcome would occur. The more an outcome is perceived as likely to occur, the more that potential outcome will add to the person's overall motivation to either attain or avoid the outcome. Subjects responded to each item on a scale from "l=

not at all likely to occur" to "5= very likely to occur." The second scale was used to indicate the motivational force of the item, i.e., whether the student would work hard to avoid or attain the outcome. This scale ranges from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" on items worded to represent the importance of avoiding or attaining each outcome.

The motivational level for each item is the number ascertained from multiplying the force and the direction component. The mean of all negatively worded outcomes is then subtracted from the mean of the positively worded outcomes. In light of the conceptualization of motivation, the resulting total score is an indication of low to high motivation.

The pre-test of the CMPS was conducted with subjects enrolled in the introductory public speaking class (N=200). Different students than those who generated the initial items were used. Factor analysis of CMPS was conducted to determine dimensionality and factor structure of the 40 items. The criteria for item retention was a primary loading above .50 with no other loading above 50% of the primary loading (Burgoon, Coker, & Birk, 1988). Twenty-four items comprising seven factors which accounted for 65.1% of the total variance were retained.

METHOD

The sample for this study consisted of undergraduate students enrolled in introductory public speaking courses (N=204). Demographic analysis indicated that 39% were male, 61% were female. The students' varied in age (18-20 = 41%; 21-25 = 38%; 26-30 = 8%; 31+ = 12.3%) and year in school (freshman = 25%; sophomores= 32%; juniors = 15%; seniors = 24%; special status = 3%).

Packets containing the PRCA, WTC, ICM, and CMPS instruments were distributed to each subject during class.

The tests were randomly ordered in order to avoid test order effect.

Factor analysis was used to investigate research question #1. Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the dimensional and overall reliabilities of the CMPS. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed to investigate the relationship between the dimensions of the PRCA, Willingness to Communicate, and Interpersonal Communication Motivation measures and the CMPS. The alpha level for all significance tests was set at .05.

RESULTS

The CMPS was subjected to factor analysis in the actual study. Principal Components factor analysis with varimax rotation produced a six factor structure which met the 1.0 eigenvalue cutoff criterion. A factor needed to have at least two items loading at least .60 on the primary factor and less than .40 on any other factor to be considered a meaningful dimension (McCroskey, 1977). Two factors failed to meet this criteria and were removed from further analyses. Six other items had multiple loadings and were also removed from the analysis. The remaining 16 items comprise four dimensions of the Communication Motivation in Public Speaking Instrument. (See Table 1 for the rotated factor solution of the 16 items retained.) These four factors accounted for 61.5 percent of the total variance.

Table 1
Rotated Factor Loadings for the CMPS

	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor I: Negative feedback				
I will confuse the audience.	.76	-.03	-.03	.00
I will be disappointed . . .	.60	.35	.03	-.21
I will receive a good grade.*	.66	.24	-.17	-.14
I will fail in accomplishing purpose.	.72	.18	.05	-.15
I will receive negative feedback.	.66	.15	-.04	.09
Factor II: Public Speaking Anxiety				
My voice will tremble.	.21	.75	-.01	.05
I will feel "butterflies" . . .	.01	.82	.05	.15
I will worry about next speech.	.18	.76	.02	-.09
I will remain nervous . . .	.25	.69	.07	-.13
Factor III: Positive Learning Outcomes				
I will improve research skills.	.13	.10	.84	.13
I will learn to budget time.	-.00	-.04	.74	.24
I will feel a sense of accomplishment	-.23	.12	.65	.39
I will enjoy preparing speech.	-.11	-.00	.76	.05
Factor IV: Positive Audience Feedback				
I will receive positive feedback.	-.23	.07	.25	.65
I will influence audience beliefs.	.03	-.14	.18	.85
I will motivate people . . .	-.05	.04	.17	.86

Parenthetical numbers correspond to CMPS items. See Figure A.
*Scoring for this item was reversed.
Reliability for Each Factor (Cronbach's alpha)
Negative Audience Feedback = .76
Public Speaking Anxiety = .78
Positive Learning Outcomes = .78
Positive Audience Feedback = .78

The first dimension, *negative feedback,* was labeled from 5-items depicting outcomes associated with negative feedback from the audience. The locus of control was centered in the perception of the audience's appraisal of the public speaking experience. The negative feedback dimension accounted for 24.5% of the total variance. The second factor reflected the domain of *public speaking anxiety*. These 4-items reflected outcomes that are commonly associated with communication apprehension. The public speaking anxiety dimension accounted for 20.5% of the total variance. The third factor consisted of items reflecting the student's perception of *positive learning outcomes*. This dimension contains items with the apparent focus is on educational and self-growth rewards for the student. The dimension of positive learning outcomes accounted for an additional 10.5% of the total variance. The fourth factor that emerged reflected positive audience centered outcomes. The *positive audience feedback* dimension accounted for 5.6% of the variance.

The final 16-item Communication Motivation in Public Speaking Instrument (CMPS) was used in the remainder of this study. The four dimensions seem conceptually clear and seem to accurately reflect the positive and negative outcomes associated with the public speaking situation. The final four dimensions include both the positive and negative dimensions of self and audience centered evaluations of the speaking situation. Reliability estimates using Cronbach's (1951) internal reliability formula were used to assess each emerging factor reliability and are reported in Table 1.

Research question #2 examined the validity of the Communication Motivation in Public Speaking instrument. First, the relationship between the PRCA and the CMPS was assessed. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlations between the total communication apprehension score and each of the dimensions of the CMPS revealed that the total PRCA score positively correlated with negative feedback ($r=.30$; $p < .001$) and with public speaking anxiety ($r = .54$; $p < .001$), but was negatively correlated with positive learning outcomes ($r = -.33$; $p < .001$) and with positive audience feedback (r = -.35; p < .001). (See Table 2 for an overall correlation matrix.)

Table 2
Pearson Correlations: Communication Motivation in Public Speaking; Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

	1	2	3	4	Total CMPS
Group	-.27**	-.23**	.21*	.37**	-.45**
Meeting	-.23**	-.27**	.22*	.43**	-.48**
Conversation	-.21*	-.25**	.11	.37**	-.40**
Public Spk	-.36**	-.37**	.42**	.56**	-.69**
TOTAL PRCA	-.33**	-.35**	.30**	.54**	-.63**

Where 1 = Positive Learning Outcomes; 2 = Positive Audience Feedback; 3 = Negative Feedback; 4 = Public Speaking Anxiety.
N = 203
*p < .01; **p < .001.

Analyses of specific dimensions of the PRCA and the CMPS indicated that virtually all of the PRCA dimensions showed a significant positive correlation with the avoidance dimensions of the CMPS and significant negative correlations with the approach dimensions of the CMPS. (See Table 2.) The total PRCA score correlated with the total CMPS score (r = -.63; p < .001). These results indicated that the multidimensional construct of CMPS, accounting for both approach and avoidance, and the unidimensional construct of PRCA, accounting for avoidance, are negatively correlated.

The relationship between the Willingness to Communicate Instrument (WTC) and the CMPS was also examined. Pearson correlation results indicated that the total Willingness to Communicate (WTC) score positively correlated with positive learning outcomes (r = .14; p < .05), but negatively correlated with public speaking anxiety (r = -.16; p < .05). Analysis of the correlation among the dimensions of the WTC and the CMPS indicated that the WTC dimension of willingness to speak in public positively correlated with positive learning outcomes (r = .16; p < .05), positive feedback (r = .18; p < .01) and with the total CMPS score (r = .30; p < .001). This dimension also negatively correlated with negative feedback (r = -.16; p < .05) and public speaking anxiety (r = -.23; p < .001). Willingness to talk to strangers correlated with the total CMPS score (r = .28; p < .001). These findings further substantiate the relationship between a person's willingness to communicate in public and with strangers and the comparable construct of motivation to give a public speech. The failure of the CMPS dimension scores to correlate with willingness to speak in a dyad, with a friend, and with an acquaintance, indicate that the CMPS is specifically measuring the public speaking context. (See Table 3.)

Table 3
Pearson Correlations: Communication Motivation in Public Speaking; Willingness to Communicate

	1	2	3	4	Total CMPS
Public	.16*	.18**	-.16*	-.23***	.30***
Meetings	.12	.12	-.10	-.14*	.20**
Group	.12	.09	-.11	-.18**	.21**
Dyad	.10	.06	-.05	-.04	.10
Stranger	.15*	.13	-.16*	-.25***	.28***
Acquaintance	.13	.13	-.09	-.12	.19**
Friend	.09	.07	-.03	-.01	.08
Total WTC	.14*	.13	-.11	-.16*	.22**

Where 1 = Positive Learning Outcomes; 2 = Positive Feedback; 3 = Negative Feedback; 4 = Public Speaking Anxiety.
N = 203
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

The relationship between the Interpersonal Communication Motives instrument (ICM) and the CMPS was assessed. Pearson correlations revealed that the interpersonal needs associated with the more positive dimensions of pleasure, affection, and relaxation were correlated with the positive dimensions of positive learning outcomes and positive audience feedback. This was consistent with Rubin, Perse and Barbato's (1988) findings that the pleasure, affection and control motives were related negatively to Communication Apprehension and therefore should be positively correlated with the positive dimensions of the CMPS instrument. The control motive, however, did not correlate significantly with any CMPS dimensions. In addition, the ICM dimension of escape was negatively correlated with the positive CMPS dimensions and positively correlated with the negative CMPS dimensions of negative feedback and public speaking anxiety. The correlations between the CMPS dimensions and the ICM dimensions supported the initial suggestion that the fulfillment of interpersonal needs should have low correlations with the Communication Motivation in Public Speaking Instrument. (See Table 4.)

Table 4
Pearson Correlations: Communication Motivation in Public Speaking, Interpersonal Communication Motives

	1	2	3	4
Pleasure	.23***	.24***	-.09	-.05
Affection	.33***	.27***	-.01	.09
Inclusion	.03	.12	.15*	.16*
Escape	-.26***	.16*	.23***	.14*
Relaxation	.19**	.25***	.03	.07
Control	-.12	.11	.02	-.08

Where 1 = Positive Learning Outcomes; 2 = Positive Feedback; 3 = Negative Feedback; 4 = Public Speaking Anxiety.
N = 202
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

DISCUSSION

A motivational scale based on expectancy theory was constructed which measured the directionality and the intensity of motivation to communicate in a public speaking situation. The scale effectively measured the interplay between the approach and avoidance forces toward specific communication outcomes. Research Question #1 attempted to determine the factor structure of the CMPS instrument. A pretest identified specific outcomes that student's evaluate when giving a public speech. Factor analysis reduced the number of outcomes to 16 specific consequences representing four dimensions of public speaking motivation. The four dimensions of the CMPS reflected both the approach and avoidance conceptualization of motivation suggested by expectancy theory. The reliability estimates ranged from .75 to .78 which are reasonable for a new measure (Nunnally, 1967). These findings argue that the Communication Motivation in Public Speaking instrument (CMPS) is a reliable measure of motivation based on expectancy theory. Since the scale items are drawn from a large sample of outcomes generated by the students themselves, and are representative of the domain of the construct, the content validity is adequately established.

Research Question #2 explored the relationship between communication apprehension (as measured by the PRCA), willingness to communicate (WTC), interpersonal communication motivation (ICM), and Communication Motivation in Public Speaking (CMPS). As posited in the conceptualization of the CMPS, results indicated that communication apprehension was correlated to the negative dimensions of the CMPS instrument and negatively correlated to the positive dimensions.

The relationship between communication motivation in public speaking and willingness to communicate as measured by the Willingness to Communicate instrument (WTC) also contributed to the construct validity of the CMPS. While the total WTC and total CMPS scores were significantly related (.22; p < .01), willingness to speak in public and with strangers were the only dimensions with consistent significant correlations with the CMPS dimensions. Willingness to communicate with friends or in dyads did not significantly correlate with the total CMPS score. This result was expected because the CMPS is intended to measure public speaking and not the interpersonal situation of the dyad. These results support the predictive validity of the CMPS instrument.

The relationship between the communication motivation in public speaking instrument and the Interpersonal Communication Motives scale (ICM) (Rubin, Perse & Barbato, 1988) revealed some correlations among dimensions. The dimensional motives of pleasure, affection and relaxation were significantly correlated to the positive dimensions of the CMPS instrument. The escape motive was negatively correlated with positive audience feedback and positive learning outcomes and positively correlated with negative audience feedback and public speaking anxiety. The control dimension did not correlate significantly with the CMPS dimensions. This indicates that measurement of motivation from a need gratification conceptualization is not isomorphic with measurement of motivation conceptualized as expectancy potential. It also suggests that motivational factors relevant to interpersonal communication are different than motivational factors relevant to the public speaking context.

The CMPS seems to be a valid combination of propensities to approach and avoid public speaking. It also seems to be a predictor of public speaking motivation, rather than general communication motivation. Approach dimensions in the CMPS correlated positively with the WTC (an approach instrument) and negatively with the PRCA (an avoidance measurement). Conversely, the avoidance dimensions of the CMPS correlated positively with the avoidance measure (PRCA) and negatively with the approach measure (WTC).

The highest correlations were with public speaking dimensions of the other instruments with few significant correlations with interpersonal dimensions of the WTC, PRCA, and ICM. The correlations among the instruments give some evidence of construct and discriminant validity. This may indicate that though the constructs measured by the CMPS and the other instruments are similar, the expectancy theory approach to communication motivation may provide additional or different information in explaining the variance in people's propensity to communicate.

Pedagogical applications of the CMPS are important to examine. Introductory communication course instructors often assume that reduction of anxiety is tantamount to increasing motivation to present public speeches. This study clearly demonstrates that apprehension is just one of the dimensions of the motivation to communicate construct. People with low apprehension cannot be assumed to be highly motivated. Teachers need to be concerned with all the factors which contribute to motivation.

The results of the study also indicate that audience reactions are an important factor in motivating students to give public speeches. Impressing the student audience that they do have an impact on their peers may increase their awareness of the transactional nature of the communication context. They may become aware of their own role in the success or failure of a speaker and hence become more motivated to participate in the public speaking process.

Perhaps the individual item scores of the CMPS reflect the most important pedagogical implications in this investigation. In addition to the total CMPS score, dimensional scores indicate specific areas that are contributing to the student's motivation. Scores on individual items reflect specific outcomes that are affecting the student's motivation to communicate. Communication instructors can measure the impact of 16 potential outcomes which may affect student's motivation to participate in public speaking. Self-diagnosis may help the student re-evaluate the factors that are hindering their motivation to communicate and accentuate factors that are contributing to their motivation.

Teachers often try to discover what motivates students through trial and error. A common strategy is to assume factors that would motivate the teacher (e.g., grades, learning, self growth) also motivate the students. The CMPS scores may assist in the teacher's diagnoses of a performance situation in motivational terms, and provide the potential to "change aspects of the situation to obtain higher levels of effort from the performers" (Hackman & Porter, 254). Specific interventions designed for the specific student may improve the ability of teachers in the introductory course to increase motivation.

Limitations of the Study

The most significant limitation of the present research is the fact that the potential consequences that were generated by the students were reduced from over 100 to 16. While it is evident that there are more than 16 consequences for giving a public speech that will effect a student's motivation, pragmatics dictated the outcomes be limited to a manageable number of items. In future research, additional consequences should be collected from students and "nonstudents" to fully explore the domain of the motivation construct. In addition, future research should investigate the relationship between other variables, (e.g., number of previous speeches, and previous public speaking instruction, gender, class size, gender of teacher) and a person's motivation to communicate. Motivational factors for other communication contexts (e.g., interpersonal, organizational, conflict, problem solving, interviewing) also need to be identified.

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Models for Graduate Teaching Assistant (GTA) Training: The "Real," the "Necessary," and the "Ideal"

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Educators in higher education can affect the state of college-level teaching expertise through the training graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) receive. Making sure that both training and supervision are provided for GTAs at both the M.A. and Ph.D. levels may be the best way to promote quality GTA teaching and, consequently, quality teaching by the professoriate of the future.

In fact, GTA training has become a topic of increasing interest. Literature has been published describing how various departments and/or institutions approach training; research has been conducted critiquing, comparing, and/or contrasting training methods; and conferences have been held for professionals involved with GTA training to share ideas and experiences. (For a review of literature across disciplines, see Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1989; Feezel & Venkatagiri, 1990; Nyquist, Abbott, & Wulff, 1989; Van Note Chism & Warner, 1987; Worthen, 1988; for a review of literature specific to speech communication, see Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1990.)

Our own work has involved a four-phase national survey inside and outside of speech communication. We surveyed 274 graduate deans, 69 speech communication chairs/heads and 270 chairs/heads from a random sample of noncommunication departments, 207 GTAs from a range of disciplines who had taught for at least one term, and 322 incoming GTAs who had not yet begun that task. These four data sets form the basis for the analyses presented herein.

The purpose of this paper is to assemble what our research says about GTA training in general and specifically in departments of speech communication. Our hope is that, by compiling the four data sets into a comprehensive description of what is presently happening and what is needed in the area of GTA training, we will provide the empirical evidence campus and departmental administrators need to argue for increased activity at their own institutions. In particular, we will use data from the four samples to develop two models of GTA training: 1) the essential components of training that must be provided in some form (the "necessary" model), and 2) what, given the resources and energy required to achieve maximal success, might be undertaken in the not-too-distant future (the "ideal" model).

THE "IDEAL" MODEL

We recognize that there can be no one model that would meet the varying needs of everyone concerned or the resources available at individual institutions for training. A small school with only 20 GTAs would not have the same needs as a large university with thousands of GTAs. However, the ideas posited here reflect a research-based approach to GTA training that may provide a model for an institution that relies heavily on GTA teaching and that may be adapted by schools that rely less heavily on GTAs. The proposed model is based on the review of literature leading up to our national study (1990), the results of the national study, and numerous convention programs, conferences and discussions with other educators involved with GTA training. While we do not pretend that ours is the only (or even the best) model, we do believe that the process of upgrading GTA training needs to start somewhere and soon. Table 1 summarizes the key components of the proposed Bilevel GTA Training Model.

Type of Training and Supervision (Department-Based or Campus-Wide)

We propose a combination training model, which would provide benefits for both the GTAs and the institutions. At the campus level, GTAs would have the opportunity to interact with GTAs from other disciplines and to begin to see the "big picture" of teaching. This interaction has proved beneficial at other institutions using a combined model (Civikly, 1990). At the departmental level, GTAs would receive training tailored specifically to their needs, which would prepare them to teach a specific course. In this combination model, two key educator roles would be utilized: campus specialists and departmental trainers, who also might be basic course directors (BCDs). Where there is both a trainer and a BCD, both people would attend campus-wide sessions.

The first phase of the model consists of campus-wide training. This training would have three major goals: 1) to present teaching concepts/strategies/skills to all GTAs at the university; 2) to present those topics by specialists who are experts in the areas selected, as well as role models for quality teaching; and 3) to allow for indisciplinary exchange of ideas and information and for cross-campus interaction and support among GTAs.

Table 1
A Comprehensive Combination Model for GTA Training

	PREPARATION	TRAINING	TRAINERS	ONGOING TRAINING AND SUPERVISION
UNIVERSITY-WIDE TRAINING	Coordinator oversees planning Tasks associated with this role: recruiting specialists developing objectives developing materials reserving space; scheduling locating funding coordinating planning with trainers from departments contacting GTAs planning evaluation/follow-up	2 weeks prior to classes lasts 5 days mass-lecture format presentations by specialists attended by all new GTAs, some returning GTAs, all departmental training personnel goals: 1) to present university teaching concepts, etc. 2) to present these topics by specialists topics: 1) general education 2) preparation techniques 3) teaching strategies 4) grading/critiquing 5) time management 6) classroom presentation 7) classroom management 8) university issues	specialists in areas of teaching/learning ability to model quality teaching have conducted research in areas related to teaching receive some sort of monetary compensation for training role	2 meetings during each term staff available to run in-service workshops, help-groups, etc. staff available to videotape classes resources available: lending library full of training materials videotapes for self-improvement instructional materials center available to create course materials consultants

INTERFACE	The University-Wide Coordinator meets with departmental trainers and course directors to coordinate activities, schedule, identify commonalities, etc.	Some form of evaluation takes place so that departmental trainers have information about what GTAs have learned and what problem areas are evident. This assessment serves as a form of evaluation for the university-wide program.	University-wide specialists meet informally with departmental trainers to share ideas, concerns, etc. and to build relationships	Departmental trainers meet with University personnel to familiarize themselves with resources available on campus for new teachers. Whenever feasible departmental trainers use campus materials in weekly training meetings.
DEPARTMENT-BASED TRAINING	Departmental trainers oversee planning Tasks associated with this role: developing objectives locating/developing materials reserving space, scheduling locating funding developing activities creating a course syllabus coordinating input from other departmental faculty planning evaluation/follow-up	1-2 weeks prior to classes lasts 5 days small group tutorial format; focus on application run by trainers and/or basic course directors attended by all new GTAs, some returning GTAs, some faculty goals: 1) to supplement university-wide sessions 2) to deal with issues specific to this dept. 3) to allow time for practice/application 4) to build strong relationships between GTAs and departmental staff topics: 1) specific content for each field 2) assignments/policies specific to courses 3) specific methods for course content 4) strategies/requirements for grading 5) methods for collecting feedback 6) ways to create excitement for specific course	experts in content they supervise ability to model quality teaching have conducted research in areas related to teaching have commitment to quality teaching; willing to learn about communication education if this is not their speciality area receive load reduction or compensation for training role (and supervision)	weekly/biweekly meetings regular class observations and follow-up critiques peer observations/peer teaching mentoring system with experienced GTAs and/or faculty members incentives for teaching success (e.g., being "promoted" to more difficult teaching assignments) periodic course evaluations availability of trainer/bcd to answer questions, troubleshoot, provide suggestions, etc.

In the campus-wide section of the training, educators specializing in various aspects of teaching/learning/university needs would present their areas of expertise: education professors for lesson planning, classroom management, and grading; educational psychology professors for learning theory and learning styles; speech communication professors for building rapport, presentation skills, and handling conflict; and so on. Likewise, other academic professionals could cover topics associated with their areas of expertise: school counselors could talk about test anxiety, dealing with distressed students, and recognizing substance abusers; tutors from the academic assistance program could describe services available to students; and so on. These campus specialists also would be chosen for their ability to model quality teaching practices.

The topics covered in the campus-wide training would be selected for their generalizability to all GTAs at the institution. Certainly it is difficult for departmental trainers to be current with all of the latest innovations in learning theory, teaching strategies, etc. Identifying people at each institution who specialize in specific areas would allow the GTAs to receive training from the very best faculty the campus has to offer. Similarly, the campus-wide program could be used to tackle issues related to significant subgroups within the GTA population. For example, specialists in training international teaching assistants (ITAs) could work with those GTAs to handle cultural difficulties, language barriers, and other issues related to teaching a course in a second language in a foreign country. Likewise, GTAs could be formed into subgroups for certain types of generalized instruction: how to handle a mass lecture, how to run lab sections of a course, how to work within self-paced programs, and so on.

Largely for cost and logistical reasons, we propose that sessions be conducted in a mass-lecture format. These campus professionals would deliver their messages with little interaction or discussion (as long as time was provided later in the training for such interaction/discussion to occur). This format would provide a cost-effective way to learn from a school's experts in an area of teaching. Videotaped lessons might be developed to use in the future in place of some of these professionals.

The departmental trainers should attend these sessions for many reasons. First, they would have to be part of this training process so that departmental training builds on this experience rather than repeating or contradicting these sessions. In addition, areas that may have been unclear or not fully developed could be returned to in departmental sessions. Second, departmental trainers may get new ideas from these experts. After all, many of these trainers would not have a strong background in education. Many departmental trainers would benefit from having the pressure lifted to be the sole authority on teaching that his/her GTAs look to for skills and guidance. If the training is not handled by the course director, that person should attend these sessions, too. Such attendance would foster a sense of unity among the various components of the GTA training/supervision program. Third, attendance at these sessions would allow departmental trainers and course directors (CDs) to exchange ideas among professionals with whom they share similar duties and concerns. GTA trainers often become isolated within their departments because there usually is only one person per department assigned to this task and, according to our research, even remotely interested in this task in many cases! Therefore, getting feedback for improvement and incorporating new ideas into training is difficult because there is no outlet for obtaining those new ideas.

Ideally, the campus specialists and departmental trainers would have time to spend together before the sessions to share concerns, learn what is about to occur, etc. Departmental trainers could receive some support for and instruction in their roles at this time. This interaction would promote unity between the campus-wide and the departmental sessions and would allow for the exchange of ideas, successes and failures. It also would allow for some trainers to excuse their students from a campus-wide training session or provide an alternative activity for their GTAs if they perceived a specific session to be inappropriate for that group. For example, a session on grading might be considered a waste of time for students who will run labs only. We would caution against this practice, however, especially if used often. If one of our concerns is preparing the professoriate of tomorrow, then skill-building now may have a future payoff even if the immediate application is not apparent. Also, teaching assignments for GTAs may change from year to year as a GTA gains experience. A first year assignment may be to serve as a lab assistant; a third year assignment may require preparing an entire course. Thus, a short-sighted approach to this training may defeat long-term goals.

Further, the teaching specialists could remain as consultants for the departmental trainers throughout the year. Periodically, mass sessions could be held to reinforce and clarify skills and strategies dealt with in the campus-wide training session. In addition, this approach would allow the institution's GTAs and departmental trainers to continue to interact, thus fostering a continuous sharing among these educators and GTAs.

Following or concurrent with this campus-wide training would be departmental training. This departmental training would have four goals: 1) to supplement learning from the campus-wide sessions, 2) to deal with issues specifically relevant to the GTAs' teaching area(s), 3) to allow time for practice and application of skills, and 4) to build a strong relationship between the GTAs and the departmental training personnel.

First, concepts introduced in the campus-wide training would be discussed and applied. The smaller departmental groups would allow for questions and clarifications of the ideas presented. Then, these ideas would be applied to the specific discipline. For example, in communication, the principles of lecturing and processing exercises would be applied to topics in speech communication (e.g., leadership, listening, conflict) and actual exercises likely to be done in a speech communication classroom.

Second, specific issues relevant to each field/course would be introduced, discussed and practiced in the departmental training. In communication, specific ideas and skills such as coaching, critiquing and grading speeches/performances may be undertaken. Further, specific assignments, course policies, and so on would be discussed.

A third goal of the departmental training would be personal skill development. The GTAs would lead exercises, give lectures, practice critiquing speeches, process activities, and so on. Videotaping of some or all of these practice activities would allow GTAs to engage in self and peer critique and to discuss their strengths and weaknesses with the departmental trainer.

The final goal of the departmental training would be to develop a spirit of trust and camaraderie among the GTAs, the trainer and other faculty. Professional standards for teaching well may be ingrained at this crucial point in their budding professional careers. The message sent should be a strong one: Teaching is important; without providing quality teaching to our students, we are taking money from them fraudulently and we should be held responsible as any fraudulent person should be; without quality teaching, solid research becomes an isolated activity rather than a complementary activity to teaching; and a serious approach to teaching is not only expected by this department, but nothing else will be tolerated. The modeling of the trainer, course director, faculty members and even experienced GTAs can be invaluable in reaching this goal. Including other faculty and GTAs in the training by inviting them to a retreat, inviting them to stop by to greet the GTAs on breaks during training, providing time for faculty to give short presentations about their philosophy of teaching, and allowing informal opportunities for GTAs and faculty to interact (e.g. a barbecue supper after a training session) can be used to create relationships among GTAs and between the new GTAs and the veteran staff.

Since the goals for the departmental training are complex, a course might be developed through which the GTAs receive credit toward their degrees. Creation of such a course might motivate the GTAs because a level of importance is added once a grade toward a final GPA is associated with their teaching duties. A graded course also may give the trainer more license to expect written lesson plans, observation papers, research into teaching strategies, etc. Additionally, this course would become a certain number of credits of the GTA's first term. Since most GTAs have a certain minimum expectation for a load of coursework, without receiving course credit for this training, an additional course may have to be taken, which would further compete for the GTA's time. One final advantage of GTAs taking a course in teaching in their field is the legitimacy this course may add to the teaching assignment. Communication education often is viewed as less rigorous a research area and professionals are given less respect than their interpersonal, small group, communication theory, organizational, and rhetorical counterparts. Surely such attitudes do nothing to elevate the level of teaching in our profession.

Participants

The "ideal" training model is designed for all teaching assistants prior to and/or during their first term of teaching. Even if a person has taught before taking this assistantship, participating in the training would ensure a commonality of understanding/experiences among the GTAs in a department and between the GTA and the supervisor.

It is important to note here that while this training is designed for GTAs at the beginning of an assistantship, returning GTAs also may benefit from joining the training group. New skills may be needed by GTAs as they receive different teaching assignments from a department. Training that a GTA was excused from or training taken when the teaching assignment was very different may need to be taken in the future. Likewise, asking returning GTAs to take part in the training as peer teachers, group facilitators, or mentors allows those GTAs both to gain new skills and to take on additional teaching/training responsibilities as their skills allow. Certainly, one training session will not create master teachers; additional opportunities for the returning staff to work with the new staff can only add to the skills the returning GTAs take to their classrooms. Such interaction also builds relationships across the groups, providing support for new GTAs and reinforcement for the returning staff.

Time Frame of Training/Supervision

We propose that training should start in late summer, at least two weeks before regular classes begin. The campus-wide training should begin first and last for five full days. This session would be followed by five full days of departmental training. Further, we propose that considerable time be devoted to training throughout the first term of teaching. Departmental trainers and basic course directors should meet with university specialists at least twice during this time: at a midpoint to provide feedback to each other and to discuss needed areas of further information/discussion and again at the end to share successes and failures and to plan for the future. At the institutional level, at least two mass meetings should be held where all of the GTAs, departmental trainers and course directors, and campus specialists congregate to share examples, ask questions, propose additional solutions, etc.

At the departmental level, regular meetings should be held (each week or biweekly) by the departmental trainer and/or CD. These meetings could involve general sharing sessions, further skill development, introduction or clarification of upcoming assignments, or even guest speakers in a general teaching area or a specific discipline-related content area. For departments in which GTAs teach a wide array of materials and grade/critique a large number of assignments, regular meetings would allow the trainer(s) to provide information and practice as needed. Certainly, learning how to grade a 5-minute speech 2 weeks before the assignment is due will result in better retention of the information than learning how to perform the same task in a session 12 weeks earlier! Likewise, practice grading sessions, writing processing questions for specific activities, or learning how to use a videotape to teach a specific content area all might be better timed to fit the schedule of the course the GTAs teach.

These meetings also may be a good time for other faculty and/or experienced GTAs in the department to share their teaching ideas. This format would allow the GTAs to meet others, learn new ideas and even have their commitment to teaching reinforced through the example set by teachers other than the trainer and/or basic course director. Experienced GTAs could present a topic of mutual interest to the group (e.g., the pros and cons of using various types of critique sheets). Again, the concept of peer teaching/tutoring/mentoring could continue in this meeting format. These meetings also may be a place and time to evaluate assignments and the program overall. In addition. some GTA incentives for quality teaching may be developed (e.g., Teacher of the Month, recognition of contribution to the teaching program) and may be presented during such meetings.

The ongoing departmental training also should include direct supervision of the GTAs in their classrooms. At least once during the first term of teaching, the trainer should observe the GTA teach, and the trainer and the GTA should meet to discuss the observation. A lesson plan might be given to the trainer ahead of time to help distinguish between planning problems and presentation problems. Some of the assignments in the GTA training course might center around this observation. The lesson plan just referred to and a self-critique paper analyzing strengths and weaknesses and proposing ways to improve might be useful to the GTA. If unacceptable weaknesses are seen in the observation, a second observation can be scheduled. In between, some remediation should be proposed (e.g., private meetings, sitting in on another GTA's or professor's class, reviewing teaching tapes, consulting with a specialist, etc.). This pattern of observation should be repeated every term to help the GTAs continue to improve. (Later, GTAs may be asked to team-teach with experienced faculty members who would assume responsibility for providing feedback and offering improvement suggestions. Only the strongest teachers on the faculty would make good choices for team teaching with GTAs.)

We also believe that peer teaching/learning is a beneficial concept to integrate into the departmental training. GTAs should be put in pairs (or teams), which would provide a ready-made person with whom to share ideas. Certainly GTAs will build their own support groups which may or may not include this teammate. However, pairing people up provides an immediate support person who may be needed in the critical first few days of teaching. We also advocate that each new GTA observe at least two peers. This opportunity allows for direct sharing of ideas and, once again, may foster an atmosphere of mutual support desired among the GTAs. It also may be beneficial to have GTAs observe experienced teachers. A cooperative departmental atmosphere and accent on quality teaching may evolve from such interactions, and knowing that they serve as role models may enhance faculty teaching as well!

Topics To Be Dealt With In Training/Supervision

Although each institution might have different ways of organizing and/or structuring training sessions, certain topics would need to be covered for the training to be effective. The list in Table 2 provides an overview of the breadth of topics to be included in the training program, both at the campus and departmental levels.

Table 2
Training Topics

Campus-Wide.

1) general education — learning theory, learning styles, motivating students, creating interest in course content, philosophy of education, etc.;
2) preparation techniques — course planning/preparation, lesson-planning, setting goals/stating objectives, analyzing students;
3) teaching strategies — lecturing, leading and processing activities, leading discussions, providing hands-on experience, using groups, using technology, others (role-plays, case studies, etc.);
4) grading/critiquing (setting due dates, establishing criteria, being consistent, providing constructive feedback, making expectations clear to students, etc.);
5) time management

6) classroom presentation (animation, vocal variety, eye contact, etc.);
7) classroom management — organization, interpersonal climate, discipline, conflict, use of nonverbal elements (seating, lighting, pacing, etc.); and
8) university issues — rules/regulations for GTAs; resources available; expectations for the GTA role university-wide.

Department Based.

1) specific content for each field (including some form of testing to ascertain the level at which GTAs understand the content that they are expected to teach);
2) assignments/policies specific to the course(s) to be taught (including a sample syllabus and daily schedule for standardized courses);
3) specific methods for teaching course content (lecture content, activities, videotapes, other materials; some form of GTA handbook might be provided to supply specific information);
4) strategies/requirements for grading specific assignments (including specific critique sheets and criteria used for standardized courses);
5) methods for soliciting and interpreting student feedback; and
6) ways to create excitement for specific course content.

Campus Specialists/Departmental Trainers

It should be clear that the campus specialists and departmental trainers should be selected with care. The specialists will be charged with providing the teaching techniques and classroom management ideas for all GTAs at the college/university. A poor presentation here could result in poor teaching in disciplines throughout the institution! The campus specialists must be experts in their areas, both in their knowledge and in their teaching skills. Certainly selecting specialists based on their research expertise would enhance their credibility and further reinforce the dove-tailing of research and teaching.

The departmental trainers should have similar qualifications. They should be selected because they are experts in the general content of the field they supervise and, ideally, should have training in education. Additionally, trainers must be solid teacher role-models.

An absolute requirement for both the specialists and the trainers is that they be committed to quality teaching and willing to familiarize themselves with the most recent literature in education. In addition, the specialists and the trainers must be willing to provide the time needed to guide inexperienced GTAs through the trials of teaching, which is a time-consuming process. The GTAs need to be able to state their feelings of frustration, seek advice about handling a student problem, and just generally share details of the challenge of teaching (failures and successes!). Lastly, these people must be willing and able to handle the details of scheduling, planning and evaluation of the entire program. A Campus Training Coordinator (or committee) could handle administration of the campus-wide programs and act as an advisor for the departmental trainers. Regardless of who takes on the role, coordinated effort among the units of the institution would seem to be an essential predictor of the effectiveness of the Bilevel Model.

THE REALITIES OF THE "IDEAL"

Costs

One major cost is in faculty time. Clearly the "oh, by the way, could you train our GTAs?" method of assigning trainers and specialists to this program will not work. Such a commitment should not be on top of all of the other expectations of being a productive faculty member, at least not for very long. Course load credit should be equated with this assignment for the departmental trainers. Since the specialists may only be asked to commit a few days a year, monetary compensation may be adequate. In a large university, one coordinator of the campus-wide component may be assigned course load credit to meet with the departmental trainers, plan the sessions, gather supporting materials for further use by the GTAs, evaluate the program, etc. In many cases, the role of the dean of the graduate school may include training supervision.

A meeting place for the campus-wide component would have to be large enough to hold all of the people involved. For some universities, this requirement will mean giving a priority to this program over late summer conferences, orientation programs, and the like.

Materials will have to be developed and copied. A mass session will be more effective if materials can be supplied to the GTAs either to be read ahead of time or to be kept as a review of what was covered. Similarly, such printed materials may substitute for training sessions, if the content can be learned by the GTA independently. A Materials Center could be established which would provide a specified place where materials could be checked out, GTAs from across the university could meet to share ideas and resources, etc. Once again, course load credit may have to be devoted to someone to develop such resources. The major development costs should be a one-time only cost, however. Updating the materials might be done as a part of each specialist's job and could be computed as part of that compensation or could be part of a program coordinator's job. Copying costs could be provided from the general fund, each department could provide copies of the materials for its GTAs, or the materials could be sold through the campus press or a copying outlet.

While the total cost of such a program could be significant, depending on the facilities and resources already in place, creative solutions can be found. First of all, it would be feasible to put the model into place in phases, possibly over the course of several years. Second, the prospect of personal development/support and interdisciplinary research opportunities may motivate personnel to volunteer their time, at least initially. Finally, fund-raising efforts aimed at securing support from state/local foundations, businesses, alumni, and national agencies (e.g., Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education) could be initiated.

Commitment

Far above monetary considerations, the proposed "ideal" model for GTA training will take commitment, but we see many benefits to the institution. The cooperation it will take among departments should help to break down some of the often-territorial behaviors among units of a campus. The new possibilities for research in teaching and training from an interdisciplinary standpoint, as well as other possible areas of mutual interest that may arise once professionals spend time together, should make this training model appealing even to the most research-oriented university. The potential to help train the professors of tomorrow should be a goal of every institution interested in the betterment of education as a whole. Whether or not these benefits are seen as important should not undermine one of the most compelling reasons why an institution should commit to this (or some other equally comprehensive) training model: Students deserve quality teaching, whether it be from tenured, full professors or first-term GTAs.

Departments also will need to be committed to such a project. Often, departments have the power to allocate course load time to the trainer without input from outside. Departmental commitment may be shown through a mandate to their graduate students: GTAs can only begin teaching after they have successfully completed the required training. Developing a comprehensive training program is useless if several GTAs are not required to be a part of that training session. Such a commitment can be painful. It may mean telling desirable students to wait a term before being eligible for teaching assistantships. It also may mean leaving a vacancy unfilled if no qualified GTAs are available to fill the slot. If the teaching assistantships are viewed as a means to an end (i.e., a way of financing graduate studies or an economical way to generate student credit hours), then this decision will be very difficult. If, on the other hand, the department feels the teaching assistantship brings with it a responsibility to students to offer them the best possible instruction, then turning away desirable GTAs who would not be well trained as teachers will be an easy task. Such commitment is vital for any training program to work.

Another form of commitment is needed: Departments need to support the trainer in his or her goals. First of all, departments should choose a respected and productive faculty member to serve in this capacity so the GTAs have a positive role model. Faculty should be willing to be guest speakers, let students observe classes, support the trainer's requests for materials, etc. Perhaps most importantly, the trainer should have the respect of the faculty. Other faculty can undermine the best trainer's efforts. Telling advisees (or showing them through behaviors) that teaching really is not important; that students, not the teachers, have the majority of the responsibility in the learning situation; that "I was never trained and look how good a teacher I am;" that student papers can wait a month to be graded; and that research in education is "only done as a last resort;" can undermine the training process. Furthermore, such innuendoes make the trainer appear unreasonable for expecting GTAs to sit in on classes, attend staff meetings, write self-evaluation papers, read books on the subject of teaching, watch videotapes, and perform a variety of other time-consuming tasks. Such departmental commitment probably begins with the department chairperson, who is in a position both to authorize use of resources and to persuade faculty to see the benefits of training.

CONCLUSION

To date, many institutions have expressed interest in GTA training but have hesitated to make the substantial commitment of money, time, and personnel to this effort because of a lack of data which could substantiate the claim that GTA training is both necessary and beneficial. The data compiled here should help administrators begin to make the case for that commitment.

We have attempted to prescribe the medicine that will help to cure the ills associated with poor college-level teaching. We recognize that, just as the ills differ by institution and department, so the cure must be modified to meet the unique needs of those who must use it. Consequently, we offer a starting point from which higher education professionals may begin to improve the quality of GTA teaching (and, ultimately, college-level teaching in general). At present, communication departments seem to be leading the way with regard to GTA training. We hope to see that trend continue.

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Summary of Issues Discussed During the Seminar on the Introductory Course in Speech Communication, November 1990

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The introductory course in communication has received considerable attention by scholars and practitioners in the past several years. Conventions, workshops and scholarly journals reflect the concerns of course directors, teachers and administrators in defining, operating and evaluating this course. Fourteen faculty convened at the SCA Annual Convention in San Francisco in November, 1990 to identify and discuss the major issues relevant to directing and teaching the introductory course in communication. Five major issues were identified during the seminar. Discussion of the issues ranged from theoretical perspectives to specific action steps. This report is a summary of some of the major conclusions reached by the participants of the seminar.

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

A recent and growing concern of communication professionals is the measurement and teaching of communication competence. "Back to Basics" movements in curriculum development, assessment programs, and college/university skills requirements reflect an increasing need for communication educators to identify the dimensions of communication competence and ways of teaching and measuring students' communication skills. Nowhere is this of greater importance than in the introductory communication course.

The first level of analysis of the measurement and assessment of communication competence is the delineation of specific skills and knowledge to be covered. A problem with ascertaining specific skills is the separation of the introductory course into public speaking, group, interpersonal, and the hybrid or blend contexts. Some courses specifically focus on one context, while others cover a combination of situations. It is often assumed that the skills required by one type of communication are not germane to other types, i.e., skills do not transfer from one communication arena to another.

Test out and advanced placement tests suggest that there is a specific body of knowledge and a set of terminology that defines communication competence (and perhaps even our discipline). They also suggest that performance competence can be measured by success or failure in one specific context. This seems antithetical to the literature on communication competence which suggests that competence requires adaptation to different contexts and behavioral flexibility in meeting the exigencies of each situation.

A second level of analysis of this issue concerns the separation of "basic" skills from "advanced" skills. If the introductory course is "basic" in its approach and content coverage, then the skills learned in the course should also be "basic." This implies that upper level courses provide instruction in advanced skills. Such an assumption requires not only identifying specific competency skills, but specific levels of those skills, that should be mastered.

One approach to determining a set of core communication skills is to first delineate and then reach consensus on which skills are prerequisite for competent communication. The problems of determining communication skills have been addressed by several researchers, academic and professional committees, and quasi-governmental task forces. Lists of skills abound in the literature. The difficulty is to determine which ones are basic, which ones apply to which contexts, which ones are measurable, and which ones are teachable in a ten to fifteen week course.

A second way to approach the dilemma of basic versus advanced skills and which skills belong to which context is to consider a difference between communication skills and communication strategies. If communication skills are those behaviors that transcend communication contexts, strategies become the specific application of those skills adapted to the context. For example, all communication requires some degree of organization, though the specific strategies of organization depend upon whether the communication occurs in traditional public speaking, interview, group or interpersonal contexts. Similarly, listening skills are integral to any successful communication interaction, though the specific type of listening strategies may depend on the purposes of the people engaged in the communication.

With this approach, the identification of skills becomes focused on behaviors which transcend contexts. The introductory course then covers those skills and basic strategies. Advanced courses develop additional strategies, refine the basic strategies, and provide additional practice of the basic skills.

It seems unclear that our discipline has one introductory course. Each department defines and operationalizes their introductory course in a manner consistent with their tradition, faculty, students and political environment. Staffing this course is often as much a matter of teacher availability as it is a pedagogical decision of putting the best instructors in the course.

As a service course to other departments and colleges, the introductory course often adapts its content and assignments to fit the specific needs of its clientele. In addition, the current interest in Speaking Across the Curriculum (SAC) programs suggest that the introductory course has to adapt to the needs of other courses as well. In essence, the course not only needs to teach what communication professionals think is important but also what other disciplines think is important.

Advanced placement tests, test-out programs, and assessment programs suggest that several organizations assume they can/should set the standards and domain of course content. University and college administrators, not to mention some state legislatures, sometimes dictate course content, choose the texts of the courses and/or require specific types of skills assessment. Departmental budgets require part-time, adjunct, graduate assistants and undergraduate assistants to teach the course. All of these people, groups and agencies want a say in what the introductory course should be and how the course defines and assesses communication competence.

The problems inherent in the political and economic milieu of the basic course is a reality. As long as the course is primarily a service course, it must necessarily adapt to the needs of those it serves. The important issue here is not whether the course adapts, but how. An increasingly important function of administrators and teachers is to actively promote the course through effective public relations strategies. Retaining control of the content, format and staffing requires effective information dissemination and persuasive public relations campaigns. One of the *most* vital issues is to increase others' awareness and understanding of our discipline, the realities of our economic needs, and the importance of communication courses in modern college education.

The issue of communication competence is of central concern to everyone involved with the introductory course. Communication educators and administrators must maintain control of the course. Control of the course is dependent upon clearly defining course content, reaching consensus on the skills and strategies important to competence, and communicating our identity and expertise to others.

COMMUNICATION AND CULTURE

Communication faculty have increased attention to the relationship of culture and communication. The current concern with cultural integrity, minority students, and cross-cultural communication emphasizes the need to discuss the impact of cultural awareness in the introductory course. The panel participants perceived cultural concerns differently, yet there seem to be some common issues addressed by the seminar.

Some scholars take the view that culture is expressed and created through communication. Others adopt the perspective that communication differs among cultural contexts. Which perspective is most beneficial to the structure, content, and instructional strategies of the introductory course? Do we examine communication in diverse cultures or do we examine culture through communication?

Most current fundamental textbooks attempt to discuss the cultural impact of communication. Through multicultural examples, through explications of research on communication practices in different cultures, and through "advice" on how to communicate with people from other cultures, the texts try to increase the cultural awareness of communication students. Unfortunately, many of these attempts seem superficial taxonomies of different meanings for different verbal symbols or nonverbal behaviors. The cultures are often overly generalized or stereotyped such that little practical information is given.

Treatment of cultural dimensions of communication may be more efficacious if approached from the perspective that culture defines a person's communicative perspective. Rather than learning what a specific gesture means in several different cultures, or how different cultures use space and touch, the focus is on the way in which the people from different cultures interpret their world. Students are asked to consider the question "What is the other's perspective and how is that influenced by their traditions, values, language, etc?" Rather than treating cultural stereotypes as the determining factor in interpreting meaning, culture becomes just one of many factors influencing effective creation of competent communication.

The introductory communication course needs to improve in recognizing multicultural perspectives. Increasing students' awareness of cultural influences is essential. The introductory course needs to go beyond consciousness raising, however, to provide a useful perspective for interacting with people from different cultural perspectives. Cultural dissimilarity becomes an obvious signal that there may be confusion in creating shared meanings, however, everyone has somewhat different cultural backgrounds that make them unique. Beginning communication texts and classes need to emphasize that the same awareness of communication problems that occur in multicultural contexts should occur in every communication context.

With the increased awareness of multicultural diversity, texts and teachers have become increasingly sensitive to avoid statements which may be construed as biased against or for a specific culture. Yet at the same time, many texts and classes promote stereotypes in their discussions of audience analysis by telling students to generalize from basic demographic cues to the values and attitudes of the audience. Despite frequent disclaimers that the conclusions should be tentative, the practice of cultural stereotypes continues. Assignments and exercises seem to be developed without adaptation to the needs and perspectives of various cultural groups. Examples are normally of the "white" cultural perspective, with other cultures used primarily to show difficulties in communicating.

It is obviously impossible to discuss communication devoid of cultural implications. Communication faculty need to become increasingly vigilant in attempting to create balanced and realistic explorations of communication in a variety of cultures. Culture is pervasive to communication experiences and needs more attention than an isolated chapter, a few well chosen examples, or an "awareness exercise."

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS

Much of our pedagogical literature, books, manuals and research seems to address the specifics of classroom assignments, presentational methods and evaluation procedures. Adaptation to students seems to be limited to matching methods to student personality variables, learning styles and demographic variables.

Faculty in the introductory course often hope that students are able to see the connection between the course and the "Real World" outside the space/time context of the classroom. In efforts to make the course content "meaningful in a broader context," they may assume more "world knowledge" and maturity than the students possess.

Because the introductory course is defined as "basic" the assumption seems to be that it must be taken early in the students' academic careers. Yet the maturity of the students, their development of cultural awareness, their understanding of the world, and their shared experiences sometimes mitigate the application of course material, exercises, and assignments that relate the course content to the "real world." Discussions of death, job experiences, marital relationships, and other topics which are predominant in the research and literature of our field often seem inappropriate and less than meaningful to students just out of high school. First and second year students may not be capable of recognizing the importance of issues that are covered in the communication classroom. The content and application of the course material may be more relevant to advanced students who have experienced the kinds of situations that are discussed in many fundamental communication texts and courses.

Instructors need to be aware of the emotional, vocational, and experiential maturity of the students when designing and conducting the introductory course. For example, is the "employment interview assignment" commonly encountered in hybrid communication course relevant to a first year student? Are role play exercises of marital conflicts or parent-child situations understandable to a single, childless student? Are discussions of death relevant to someone who may never have attended a funeral or had a relative die? While the skills seem essential to any communication encounter, the attempts to transfer those skills beyond the classroom setting often meet with disinterest or misunderstanding. Instructors and textbook authors need to adapt assignments, discussions, and exercises to the maturity, experiential, and emotional readiness of the students.

COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES

With the increasing sophistication and availability of communication technologies, the introductory course is increasingly concerned with adapting them for instruction. Word processing, computer simulations, electronic mail systems, desk top publishing, videotape recording, editing and playback, and computer assisted instruction are becoming used more frequently in the classroom. The ability to increase the communication channels currently used by students and instructors is worthy of the increased attention and budget allocations. It seems reasonable that communication professionals should "lead the charge" in integrating communication technologies in the classroom.

Technology should not be used for technology sake. The costs of purchase, maintenance, and security are only some of the issues involved. Perhaps more importantly, teachers need to consider the impact of the technologies on the communication between students and teachers, both inside and outside the classroom. For example, if students have access to the teacher through a synchronous electronic mail or bulletin boards, will that make the communication less personal? Will it increase the availability of the teacher to otherwise apprehensive or reticent students? Will it change the focus of communication from the oral to written media? The impact of the new technologies must be considered. Additional research examining the impact of technology on classroom communication, relationships, and learning is crucial.

On the other hand, technology should not be avoided simply because it is new. Many of the technologies such as CAI, word processing, and videotape have been demonstrated to enhance the efficacy of the classroom experience and to increase the cost effectiveness of instruction. Convincing administrators to fund the technology, to give instructors time to train and adapt the technology to their specific classroom needs, and to persuade other faculty and students to use the technology are major obstacles to be overcome. The caveat is not to take the technologies for granted, but to constantly assess their effectiveness and adapt them to changing needs and skills of the students.

COURSE ADMINISTRATION

Few topics in the administration of the introductory course have gained more attention than staffing the classroom with qualified instructors. Since the introductory course is the most "visible" course to students and to other departments, it seems essential that it receive high priority in the assignment of effective faculty. Because of the number of sections, it is often necessary to staff the introductory course with part-time or adjunct teachers. In some cases, the applicant pool is exceedingly small such that administrators have little choice in selection of teachers. Establishing clear and relevant qualifications for hiring and assessing faculty performance seem critical for effective course administration. Unfortunately, these qualifications have yet to be fully explicated or consistently applied.

When a course is heavily staffed by part-time faculty whose credentials are not clearly established, other departments may consider the quality of instruction to be sub-par. A common perception is that "anyone can teach communication." The persistent use of part-time instructors, many of whom do not have advanced degrees, only serves to reinforce this perception. Improved public relations with other departments and administrators that demonstrate that careful selection procedures were followed and that these instructors are highly rated by the students may increase the prestige of the part-time faculty.

A second concern with staffing the course with part-time instructors concerns commitment to the course. Part-time instructors often feel alienated from the daily interactions with full time faculty. The temporary nature of their assignments mitigates personal identification with the course which decreases motivation to participate in its development, modification, innovation and evolution.

Course directors need to spend time and resources to integrate these instructors with all other faculty. Involvement in staff meetings, increased participative decision-making, and inclusion in faculty social events can increase commitment to the course. Increased public relations with other departments and administrators can offset many of the invalid negative perceptions that part-time faculty means lower quality instruction. Introductory course directors need to make every effort to select qualified instructors, fully integrate them into the course, and publicize the high quality of instruction they deliver to the students.

CONCLUSION

The five main issues identified in the SCA Seminar covered a broad range of topics from course content, to pedagogical methods, to administration issues. One of the most interesting observations made during the seminar was that there is great diversity in course content, pedagogical philosophies, and teaching methods. Yet underlying the diversity was a common agreement that the introductory communication course, as representative of our discipline, was healthy and important. Continued refinement of the course content, increased efficacy of teaching methods, clearer conceptualization and operationalization of communication competence, and more efficacious incorporation of multicultural perspectives will only enhance the quality of instruction. Clearly, the introductory communication course does not exist in a vacuum. Increased attention to effective public relations with administrators, other departments, and public agencies is essential for a successful program.

It is difficult to summarize eight hours of animated discussion of critical issues into a few pages. Many important ideas expressed in the seminar were not fully developed in this summary article. The critical issues need further discussion, additional research, and continued attention by communication faculty and administrators.

NOTES

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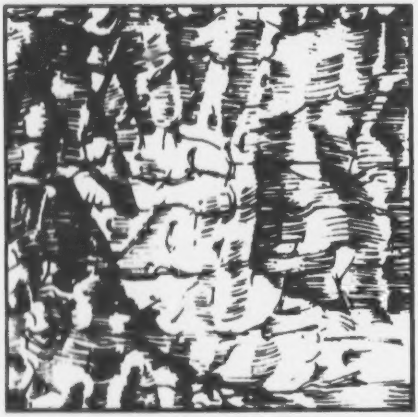

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